

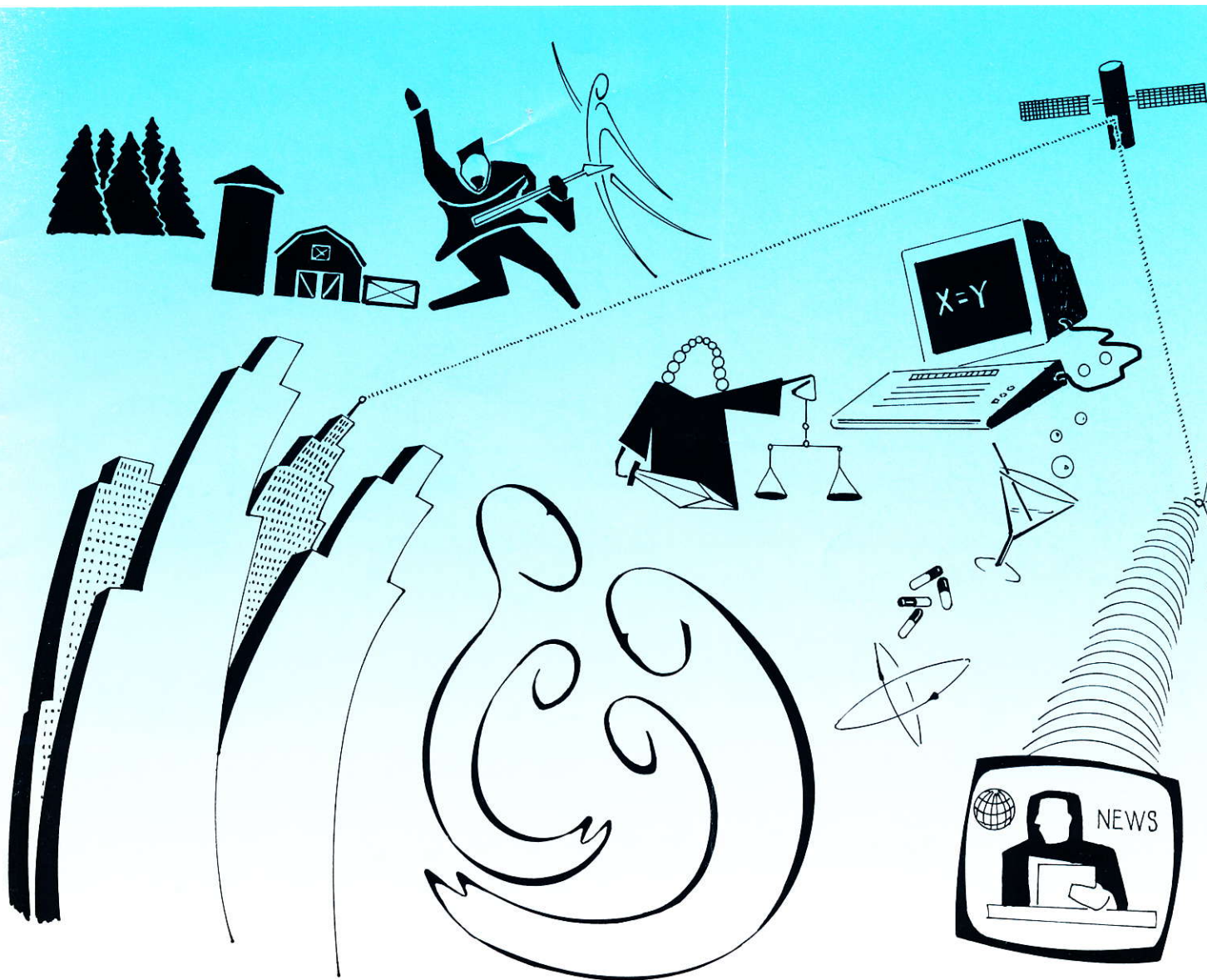


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The cover, designed by Dennis Goshinman, symbolizes the relationship between the micro/macro environment and the family.

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Reader Forum

A response to a Book Review

Dear Editor:

Elizabeth Johnston's article in the Summer 1989 issue of the Journal entitled "Update in Maternal and Infant Nutrition" was timely, well documented and thorough. She covered topics that Home Economists across Canada need to know.

I agree with Dr. Johnston that the issue of whole cow's milk during infancy is still under debate. While there are many groups who recommend its use after six months if the baby "is receiving at least one-third of his/her caloric intake from supplemental foods", I feel uncomfortable with the general nature of this statement. The linoleic acid content of a diet of whole cow's milk, infant cereal, vegetables and fruits (which is typical of the six-month-old) is lower than the Recommended Nutrient Intake. More research is needed on the requirements for this essential fatty acid as well as specific guidelines for including linoleic acid-rich foods in an infant's diet.

Sincerely,
Lynda Clark Lowry

Comments from the Readership

I enjoy the journal very much. I get a copy for work (to share) and one for home (for me).

Ontario

The Journal — it's a large part of the reason I renew my membership. It's well organized and the updates are particularly useful.

Saskatchewan

In the "new products" list there are often products that are convenient but bad for the environment, i.e. packaging. As home economists, we should be endorsing environmentally friendly products and encouraging their use.

Ontario

In my experience with other disciplines and academic journals, the present degree of editing in CHEJ, particularly regarding persons writing style and modes of expression is excessive and unproductive. Aim is excellence but being over zealous can work against these aims.

Quebec

Editors' Response: The Journal is edited according to the guidelines outlined in the American Psychological Association Publication Manual, a standard guide used by many editors of professional journals. The intent is not to intimidate prospective authors but to maintain a professional standard of quality.

I enjoy it (CHE Journal) immensely as I am not close to a major university and library and this keeps me in touch.

Manitoba

This year I had reason to read through a number of back issues and was delighted to find articles that weren't of interest at first, but were now.

Manitoba

Some responses to the 1989 Readership Survey.



Food Irradiation: Beyond Safety and Wholesomeness

Shirley Rebus

Abstract

Discussions of food irradiation usually centre on safety and wholesomeness. However, a comprehensive look at the issue must also consider monitoring and control, environmental impact, economic feasibility, and the effect of this technology on the Third World. This paper also discusses labelling and consumer acceptance of the process. Finally, consideration is given to the provision of information to the consumer and the responsibility of home economists.

Résumé

Les discussions sur l'irradiation des aliments sont habituellement concentrées sur la sécurité et la salubrité. Cependant, un regard éclairé sur le sujet devrait considérer aussi le contrôle et la protection de l'environnement, les possibilités économiques et les effets de cette technologie dans les pays en voie de développement. Cet article analyse aussi le procédé sur le plan de l'étiquetage et de l'acceptation par le consommateur. Finalement, on considère l'acheminement de l'information aux consommateurs et la responsabilité des économistes familiaux.

Shirley Rebus is a consultant home economist with a varied background of experience which has focussed primarily on food and consumerism. She holds a BSc(HEC) from the University of Alberta and a PHEC as a registered member of the Alberta Home Economics Association.

When food irradiation is discussed, the major concern usually centres on safety and wholesomeness. However, food irradiation is an issue that takes us into areas that are often less familiar to home economists. These include control of the process, environmental impact, economic feasibility, and the effect of this technology on the Third World.

Control of Food Irradiation

At present, there are no tests that can detect whether or not food has been irradiated or at what level (ACINF, 1986; Morrison & Roberts, 1986). Nor can freshness and safety be determined by sensory evaluation or bacterial counts. Instead, we must depend on ethical behavior on the part of participants, and detailed documentation about the irradiation history of foods throughout the marketing chain.

However, there has already been evidence that the honor system is not completely reliable. Webb, Lang and Tucker (1987) cite several examples, including one about the handling of contaminated prawns. A major British food company that discovered these prawns in its imported shipment sent them to the Netherlands for irradiation and illegally reimported them to Britain as fresh product.

There is considerable potential for irradiation to be misused to improve the saleability of products which are unfit for human consumption. One such product is peanuts, which are subject to contamination by aflatoxin-producing microorganisms. It is conceivable that a supplier could irradiate the peanuts to destroy these microorganisms, thereby making the product

appear safe when levels of microbes are tested. However, the toxin produced by these microbes would not be inactivated by irradiation. Thus the peanuts could, in fact, pose a health hazard even though the tests of microbe levels suggested the food was free of contamination.

Re-irradiation of foods presents another problem. The British Advisory Committee on Irradiated and Novel Foods (ACINF) (1986) recommends a cumulative maximum, but there is no way to detect if this limit has been exceeded.

Environmental Impact

Whether we like it or not, irradiation of foods brings us face to face with the issues surrounding the nuclear industry. Worker safety, disposal of wastes, transportation of nuclear material, and industrial accidents are all legitimate concerns. From the American experience, it is known that there have been safety violations (Grady, 1986; Webb et al., 1987). For example, in 1982 workers at the International Nutronics plant in Dover, New Jersey were ordered to clean up a spill of radioactive water without protective equipment, and were instructed to move their radiation badges from belt level to their collars so the badges wouldn't reveal the true extent of their radiation exposure.

Exposure to radiation puts workers at risk of cancer, genetic damage, and weakening of the immune system. According to Webb et al. (1987), this risk may exist even when radiation exposure is no more than the maximum set by the government. They make a strong case that there is *no*

threshold level of safety since low levels of exposure may have a long-term effect even if immediate problems are not evident.

Exposure to radiation is not limited to workers in the plant. In 1979 it was verified that Isomedix, the largest radiation sterilizing company in the United States, had been disposing of contaminated water from the cobalt 60 pool by dumping it into a toilet connected to the public sewer system. In New Jersey and Hawaii, radioactive contamination has been found outside irradiation plants. Clearly this is a potentially serious public health hazard.

The Economics of Food Irradiation

The proponents of irradiation point out that there are economic benefits to be gained from irradiating food. For one thing, companies will be able to market perishable goods more widely and will suffer fewer losses due to spoilage. Secondly, when irradiation is used to destroy disease-causing organisms, there could be considerable savings in time and lost productivity. The annual direct cost of all foodborne disease in Canada is estimated to be between \$40 and \$160 million (Krystynak, 1986).

These potential financial benefits, though, must be considered in light of the costs which will be incurred. Morrison and Roberts (1985) concluded their analysis of this question by cautioning that the cost of reducing food-borne illness may be greater than the public health benefit of reducing these diseases.

There is no question that food irradiation is costly, as the facilities are very specialized and capital-intensive. Krystynak (1986) estimated the capital costs of irradiation facilities, excluding land, to be \$1.3-\$3.9 million, and yearly operating costs to be from \$600,000 to \$1.2 million. Estimates suggest that irradiation would add 15-27% to the unit cost of foods, excluding transportation to and from the irradiator (Morrison & Roberts, 1985).

Because of these substantial costs, irradiation facilities will need to be fully utilized throughout the year. This may not be possible in Canada where we have small, widely-dispersed processing plants and seasonal production. One then wonders whether or not this need for economies of scale will result in foods being unnecessarily irradiated in order to keep the facilities working at full capacity.

Alleviating World Hunger

Despite these drawbacks, some would suggest that irradiation is an important means of combatting world hunger. However, according to food scientist Richard Greenberg:

A lot of world hunger benefits are overstated. Solving world hunger is more of a distribution question than a supply question. They need roads, trucks and a distribution system (Steyer, 1986, p. 20).

Apart from that, food irradiation promotes food exports to the detriment of food production for local consumption. The vast majority of people in developing countries will not be eating irradiated food; they can't afford processed food from supermarkets. Furthermore, regulations for transportation and handling of nuclear products are much more lax in developing countries than in Canada. This leaves workers and people in areas surrounding the plants vulnerable to environmental and safety risks.

Nevertheless, Canada appears to be quite willing to sell the nuclear technology produced by Atomic Energy of Canada Ltd (AECL) and we have been reasonably successful. As Grady (1986) points out:

Of the 133 commercial irradiators in use in the world, AECL has installed 71. Canada also supplies almost all of the world's Cobalt 60, which AECL buys from Ontario Hydro as a by-product of nuclear-generated electricity in Candu reactors. (p. 31)

Through the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) we are involved in several Third World irradiation projects, even though there are no commercial irradiators in Canada. The Canadian Council for International Co-operation does not approve. In 1987 it passed a resolution recommending that the federal government refrain from financing the export of this controversial technology to the Third World. The Council objects to what it considers is a double standard — go slow in Canada where consumers are vocal and push hard in countries where there won't be a backlash.

A Vested Interest

Actually proponents of food irradiation don't like the double standard either. They would prefer to see the process in widespread use in Canada. Right now it is very awkward for our nuclear salesmen to have to admit to

potential buyers that the method is not in commercial use in Canada (Grady, 1986; McIntosh, 1987).

Survival of the nuclear industry is said to be the impetus behind the pressure to adopt widespread irradiation of food in Canada. According to David Suzuki (1987), "a major motivation for food irradiation is to keep an ailing nuclear industry alive." (p. D4).

Canadian Legislation

According to some, widespread irradiation is just a matter of time. "It is not now a question of whether Canadians will be eating irradiated food, but when it will be available in the marketplace" (McTaggart, 1985, p. 11). "From the Canadian food industry's longer-term viewpoint, commercial and consumer acceptance is only a matter of time" (Kunstadt, 1987, p. 5).

In such an environment, we may have no say as to whether or not our food is irradiated. Consequently, consumers will need to rely on labelling to provide the information they need to exercise their right to choice. Canadian legislation, passed in March 1989, now requires labelling with the green international symbol and one of the following phrases: *treated by irradiation*, *treated with irradiation*, or *irradiated*. This must appear on the primary label of a packaged item, or on a sign immediately next to unpackaged foods.

An ingredient which has been irradiated must be listed as such only if it makes up more than 10% of the food. The Consumers' Association (CAC) does not agree with this approach. In its proposed food irradiation policy, CAC insists that all ingredients should be clearly labelled, regardless of the amount contained in the product. The concern is that, collectively, these ingredients in small amounts may make up the majority of some foods.

Under the new legislation, irradiation has been redefined as a process and will no longer be treated as a food additive. This is an important distinction, as processes are less stringently monitored. There will no longer be a requirement for mandatory advance testing; instead, the need for testing will now be determined on a case-by-case basis. Some believe this has paved the way for more widespread use of irradiation.

Consumer Acceptance of Food Irradiation

Industry is very conscious of the importance of consumer acceptance

and is anxious to create a favorable impression. Frank Fraser, of Atomic Energy of Canada Ltd, concluded his address at a conference on radiation processing by saying, "... we will have to educate and to expose the public to the many existing and potential benefits which are a result of radiation processing. This will require much thought and finesse ..." (Fraser, 1979, p. 8). Since that time, there have been numerous studies to examine consumer acceptance of food irradiation and determine the most effective means of promoting the benefits.

In 1987 the Science Council of Canada asked readers if they thought chemicals or irradiation posed fewer risks. Ninety percent of the 1800 respondents voted in favor of irradiation. Several other studies show a similarly favorable response (Marcotte, undated). However, these results must be kept in perspective. Twenty years ago, consumers had no concern about the widespread and increasing use of chemicals; only time has shown what the potential risks are. Who is to say it will be any different after twenty years of experience eating irradiated food? Are consumers simply prepared to substitute an unknown problem for a known one?

Market tests in the USA, France, Argentina, and South Africa have shown that some consumers will buy irradiated food (Marcotte, undated). However, it is likely that these are uncritical thinkers who simply buy the product because it looks good. Research has shown that such consumers are vulnerable to the partial information provided by food irradiation promoters. For example, a 1984 Gallup Poll reported that positive intent to purchase irradiated foods outweighed the negative by 3:1 (Marcotte, undated). "However... the 3:1 positive response to irradiation may be overstated since consumers were not informed about the nuclear associations of the process" (Bruhn, Schultz & Somer, 1986, p. 86).

Another study, undertaken by the Centre for Consumer Research and the Department of Consumer Science at the University of California-Davis, examined the extent to which consumers' fears about irradiation could be minimized. Participants were selected in two categories — conventional and alternative (ecologically-sensitive) consumers. It was found that alternative consumers showed a high

level of initial concern, and this increased after *educational* efforts. However, conventional consumers were favorably influenced by carefully-worded promotional literature which described the process in innocuous terms. Attitudes of these individuals were further influenced by a group leader who was able to reduce their concern about the risks of food irradiation and increase their sensitivity to other food risks such as chemicals, food-borne illness, and spoilage (Bruhn et al, 1986).

Obviously, attitudes can be most effectively influenced when the material is presented in a careful manner. A study commissioned by the American National Marine Fisheries Service found that only 25-30% of consumers accepted irradiation after hearing a description of the technique and how it affects food. This increased to 72% when the benefits of the process were discussed without delving into the technology. Thus, the study concluded, it is preferable to sell the product, not the process (Steyer, 1986).

So we can expect those behind irradiation to undertake an *educational campaign* which promotes the benefits only. And it has been shown that many consumers are vulnerable to being influenced by this approach.

Who Will Provide the Information?

With respect to who should provide information for consumers, Morrison and Roberts (1986) state:

Some observers argue that it is up to the government... Others say that the food industry knows the most effective way to reach consumers. However, some feel that on such a sensitive topic, consumers may be more receptive to information from the government, and industry may welcome such government efforts. (p. 11)

According to McTaggart (1985): "Government and industry will need to combine forces for consumer acceptance to happen. Otherwise... thirty years of research will be in vain" (p.9).

Canada seems to have adopted this joint approach. The federal government, in response to the report of its Standing Committee on Consumer and Corporate Affairs (1987), has stated that:

information should be prepared by the food industry in cooperation with the various [government] departments that have responsibilities in this regard... Atomic Energy of Canada Ltd will continue to provide information on food irradiation to the public... (p. 18)

Participation of all these vested interests leaves one wondering if consumers will be receiving the *unbiased* information that was recommended by the standing committee.

Home economists have been identified by Weaver and Marcotte (1988) as one of several key groups which:

require comprehensive and current information on food irradiation and food processing techniques to allow them to respond to consumer enquiries on food irradiation in a professional manner... While a good public relations and advertising campaign will be essential for raising public awareness about food irradiation and its benefits, food and health professionals could play a crucial role in consumer acceptance. (p. 230)

Weaver and Marcotte (1988) recommend providing resource information that emphasizes responses to consumer questions, along with public information materials and teaching tools. Home economists are considered a group worth wooing because:

food and health professionals are usually perceived by the public as providing objective information... If provided with the proper support, they would constitute a stabilizing voice to correct food irradiation misinformation and neutralize current anti-food irradiation propaganda. (p. 230)

The Responsibility of Home Economists

In view of the many facets of this issue and the conflicting evidence which confronts us, how do we discharge our responsibility as professionals? "Food and health professionals have an obligation to critically evaluate technological advances, make decisions, and convey information to the consumer in a comprehensive, consistent manner" (Weaver & Marcotte, 1988, p. 229). None of us would disagree. Let's just be sure that our approach is critical, and that the information on which we base our decision is unbiased. □

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Historical Changes in Caribou Inuit Men's Skin Clothing

Jill Oakes

Abstract

Over the last three centuries, Caribou Inuit hunting parka styles have changed dramatically several times. In addition to temporal variations, the basic hooded pullover parka has regionally unique construction and design features. It is difficult to determine fashion innovators at this time, however, social, psychological, physical, and economic factors influencing parka styles are clearly noted.

Résumé

Depuis trois cents ans, le style de l'anorak utilisé par les Inuits pour la chasse aux caribous s'est transformé plusieurs fois. En plus des variations particulières aux diverses époques, l'anorak de base, muni d'un capuchon, présente un modèle et un dessin typiques pour chaque région. De nos jours, il est difficile d'identifier les stylistes de ces modes, cependant, on note que des facteurs sociaux, psychologiques, physiques et économiques ont clairement influencé les modèles d'anoraks.

Jill Oakes holds a Bachelor of Home Economics, Masters of Science, and Interdisciplinary PhD through the University of Manitoba. She is currently a lecturer in the Department of Clothing and Textiles at the University of Manitoba.

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In the mid-1700s, when fashionable European gentlemen wore silk riding habits reinforced with whalebone (Wilcox, 1958), Inuit (Eskimo) hunters wore caribou or seal skin ensembles. Caribou Inuit from the southern part of the District of the Keewatin along the western shores of the Hudson Bay used time-tested parka patterns. Subtle temporal variations are seen in Caribou Inuit parka patterns. These style variations are directly caused by social, psychological, physical, and economic factors.

Historical Setting and Fashions

When American, British, and European explorers were plying the waters along the western shores of the Hudson Bay, they occasionally met Inuit families hunting and fishing along the shoreline. These Inuit belonged to a cultural group called Caribou Inuit which were divided into five subgroups. Two of these subgroups lived and hunted primarily on land, rarely travelling to the coast. The other groups hunted terrestrial and marine animals and lived along the shores of the Hudson Bay. The coastal people generally had greater access to trade goods introduced by whalers, traders, and explorers. Inland groups traveled hundreds of miles to trade at Fort Prince of Wales in northern Manitoba (Burch, 1986).

Inuit fashions were briefly recorded in explorers journals. During a search for the Northwest Passage in the mid-1700s, Ellis (1748) encountered Inuit men wearing waist length parkas with a long back tail. The same hemline became popular in France and England approximately fifty years later (Wilcox, 1958).

The first artists' rendition of the tailed parka used by Caribou Inuit was a water color made by J. Halkett (Hudson's Bay Company Library 69-24). It depicted Captain Franklin's guide, Augustus, in the early 1800s. Augustus wore a short-waisted parka with a long back tail. The hemline was fringed with depilated caribou skin. The sleeves were set in and followed the natural contours of the body. The hood was rounded and similar to hoods on contemporary winter clothing made by southern manufacturers.

Charms or amulets such as case-skinned ermine, bones, teeth, carved ivory, scraps of skins, and scraps of fabric were sewn to the parka in order to ward off illness and starvation. When beads were available they were used instead of skins, bones, and teeth, especially by coastal Inuit living around Eskimo Point. (Eskimo Point is the southern most community in the District of Keewatin located about 250 km north of Churchill, Manitoba). Beaded panels were sewn to the chest, across the back, and to the hood. Birket-Smith (1929) stated that the panel shapes were derived from the white-haired sections used to decorate outer parkas.

Men continued to wear parkas with a long back tail well into the early 1900s according to photographs (Public Archives of Canada 19690), sketches of paintings (Birket-Smith, 1929; Marsh, 1976), museum specimens (Canadian Museum of Civilization IV.C.2664; Royal Ontario Museum AC2297; Manitoba Museum of Man and Nature H5.21-377), and Inuit elders (Poungat, Pers. Comm., 1985-87; Anoe, Pers.

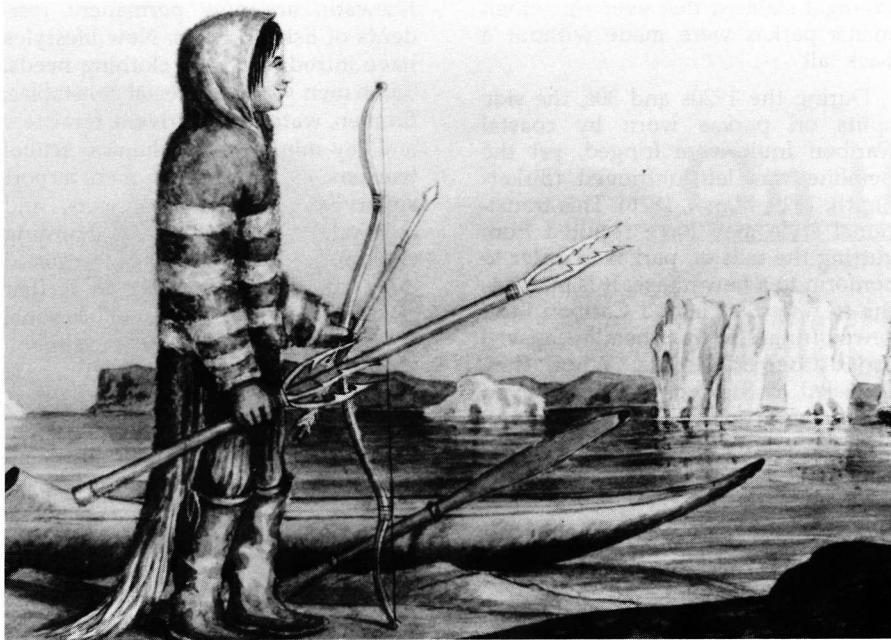


Figure 1. 19th Century Caribou Inuit Parka. Scant records from the 1700s and 1800s indicate that hunters wore waist-length parkas with a long back tail. J. Halkett's water colour, Courtesy of Hudson's Bay Company Library 69-24.

Comm., 1985-87; Nanook, Pers. Comm., 1985-87). By the 1900s parka hoods had a small knob at the crown, and string beads or strips of skin or material were attached to the knob. Birket-Smith (1929) mentioned that these decorative

clusters were eliminated as a result of teasing from non-natives.

A New Image

In the early 1920s, a change in men's parka hemlines occurred among coast-

al families. The front hemline dropped down to just above the knee or to knee length, and the back hemline was shortened to just below the knee (Birket-Smith, 1929). In comparison, men's European fashions eliminated coat tails 70 years earlier in the mid-1800s (Wilcox, 1958).

Several explanations for the change in Inuit parka hemlines are expressed. According to Driscoll (1980), Inuit seamstresses emulated the straight hemlines seen on explorer's, whaler's, and trader's jackets. It is unknown as to why this hemline style was not adopted in the mid-1800s when it was first used by non-natives. Although Inuit had over 150 years of contact with non-natives, Burch (1986) stated that Inuit culture and lifestyles remained surprisingly uninfluenced up until 1915. It is also possible that the tail-less style was introduced by Inuit seamstresses.

An Eskimo Point elder and historian, Pongat, has a unique explanation for the new, tail-less parka style (Inuit Cultural Institute, 1984). In one Inuit legend the plot reveals hardships encountered by a young man who was lost at sea for a year. At one point, the man had to pass between two mountain-like obstacles which were repeatedly colliding together. He made



Figure 2. Men's Beaded Parkas. Edwin Oakes models an old style parka decorated with beadwork. This parka was purchased in Eskimo Point while working as an accountant for the Hudson's Bay Company. His fashionably dressed son, George, creates a sharp contrast. York Factory, Manitoba, 1921. Courtesy of Oakes Photo Collection, Winnipeg, Manitoba.



Figure 3. Inuit Culture Remained Largely Unaffected by the Influx of Non-natives. Reading the Star Weekly while wearing caribou skin clothing. 1949-50. Photographed by R. Harrington. Courtesy of Public Archives of Canada 129944.



Figure 4. Contemporary Caribou Skin Parka Style. Peter Two is one of many men who wear skin parkas while travelling on the land in winter. Eskimo Point, 1986. Photo credit Jill Oakes.

a carefully-timed dash between the obstacles and escaped just as they collided. It was an extremely close call, but all he lost was his parka's tail.



Figure 5. Contemporary Caribou Skin Inner Parka. Ulayok Kaviok wears an inner parka while ice fishing near Eskimo Point. 1986. Photo credit Rick Riewe.

Poungat claimed that ever since then men's parkas were made without a back tail.

During the 1920s and 30s, the side splits on parkas worn by coastal Caribou Inuit were fringed, yet the hemline was left unfringed (Birket-Smith, 1929; Marsh, 1976). This transitional style may have resulted from cutting the tails off parkas in order to conform to a new image. It is interesting to note that inland Caribou Inuit sewed fringes to their hemline as well as to the side splits. When they travelled to the coast, they removed the fringes in order to appease the land and sea spirits and to protect their good hunting areas (Marsh, 1987). They may also have removed their fringes in order to conform to their host's parka styles.

Contemporary Trends

Over the ensuing decades dramatic social changes occurred among Caribou Inuit. In the late 1950s, the Canadian government established centralized social services including housing, medical facilities, schools, and financial assistance programs in Arctic communities. To gain access to these services, Inuit moved into settlements, giving up their nomadic lifestyle (Burch, 1986).

Coastal and inland Caribou Inuit in the southern portion of the District of

Keewatin are now permanent residents of Eskimo Point. New lifestyles have introduced new clothing needs. Some men work as special constables, firemen, water truck drivers, ministers and lay-ministers, mechanics, school teachers, clerks, delivery men, airport supervisors, radio announcers, and cultural resource officers. Hunting trips are restricted to predetermined days off work and are often further restricted by the threat of seasonal storms. The availability of caribou clothing skins is limited for people with day jobs, and they have a less frequent need for skin clothing. When people with regular jobs do go hunting, their need for warm caribou skin clothing is greater than seasoned hunters who have become acclimatized to the bitterly cold weather. In contrast, the full-time hunter has a greater opportunity to kill caribou when their skins are ideal for clothing. In some cases he uses skin clothing more frequently, as it provides the most effective protection against the elements during extended trips on the land (Oakes, In Press).

Greater exposure to southern fashions has introduced new choices for clothing worn around town and at work. Southern fashion innovations have had an extraordinary lack of influence on men's basic caribou skin parka style. Contemporary parkas are cut so the back is slightly longer than the front, and the sides are split at the hem edge to facilitate easy movement. Most men wear their parkas with the back hemline just below the knee and the front hemline just above the knee. Variations in personal preferences produce a wide range of parka lengths from mid-calf to mid-thigh. The hemline is usually trimmed with two layers of depilated skins, and side splits are trimmed with shaved skins. Wool or yarn is used when depilated skins are unavailable (Oakes, In Press).

The hunting parka has remained virtually unchanged during the recent decades of social upheaval and increased exposure to non-natives, southern technology, circumpolar Inuit, and inter-settlement trade. The contemporary Inuit parka style has become a form of cultural identity, and a symbol of stability and competence, much like the contemporary Euro-American business suit. □

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Call for Papers 1990

The *Canadian Home Economics Journal* invites articles from home economists and others who share their interest in promoting the well-being of individuals and families. Papers related to social issues affecting the home economics profession and professional practice, or providing information about professional subject fields are of particular interest.

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Dates limites d'envoi des manuscrits:

Hiver	15 septembre 1990
Printemps	15 décembre 1990
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Historical Look at Foods Eaten by Native People In Northeastern Alberta in The Early 1900s

Edith R. Zawadiuk

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to provide an insight into the food habits of Native peoples. Native people in the early 1900s obtained their food supply from Mother Earth. The animal and plant foods provided a good source of protein and carbohydrates. This paper looks into the selection and preparation of foods from the wilderness by the Cree Indians of Northeastern Alberta. The information for the paper was gathered through numerous discussions with the elders of three Reserves.

Résumé

Le but de cet article est de fournir un aperçu des habitudes alimentaires des peuples autochtones. Au début du vingtième siècle, les autochtones obtenaient leur nourriture du sol natal. Les animaux et les plantes leur procurent une bonne source de protéines et de glucides. Cet article présente la préparation et la sélection d'aliments par les Cris du Nord-Est de l'Alberta sur leur territoire. Les renseignements pour cette recherche ont été recueillis lors de nombreuses discussions avec les personnes âgées de trois Réserves indiennes.

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Acknowledgements. The following Kookums are gratefully acknowledged for their support and cooperation throughout this research project: Agnes Bull of Goodfish Lake, Maggie Dion of Kehewin, Theresa Gadwa of Kehewin, Pearl Hunter of Goodfish Lake, Alice Makokis of Saddle Lake, and Margaret Makokis of Saddle Lake. The quotation is from an unknown source.

This is a historical record of the traditional native food used and eaten by the Cree Indians of Northeastern Alberta as described by the "Kookums" (grandmothers) of the Saddle Lake, Kehewin, and Goodfish Lake Indian Reserves.

In the early 1900s, all the food was taken from the land. Animals, birds (upland and water), fish, berries, and wild plants provided the food supply for daily living. All parts of the animal and plant were used. With the coming of white settlers, vegetables, domesticated meat, and milk were introduced into the diet. The settlers brought with them: potatoes, turnips, corn, carrots, cattle, hogs, and chickens and as the century progressed, these were introduced into the Native diet.

Native people have always lived very close to nature and adhered to their own cultural beliefs. The "Kookums" say, "We are children of Mother Earth. She provides for us — lakes rivers, forests, game, and fish. From the forest comes our meat, berries, sap from the trees, and herbs for treating our ills. We drink pure fresh water from the lakes and streams. In the lakes are the fish, also part of our survival. We also have the father, the greatest of all spirits, up there in the heavens which is the Sun".

Food was obtained from *Mother Earth* by hunting and harvesting the wilderness. The food that was obtained was eaten raw, cooked, or stored for future use. It was stored by smoking, drying, preserving in tallow, or in winter by freezing. Animal foods provided a good source of protein and fat, while berries and wild edible plants were good sources of carbohydrates.

Selection of Food

The meats eaten were moose, deer, elk, buffalo, bear, beaver, lynx, porcupine, muskrat, rabbit, skunk, gopher, and groundhogs. Game birds included: ducks, geese, prairie chicken, partridges, spruce hens, owls, and chickadees. As the settlers came and started farming around the reserves, beef, pork, chicken, and milk products were introduced into their diets. Fish was plentiful. All the reserves in the Northeast are surrounded by lakes and rivers. Fish caught and used by the people were jackfish (pike), perch, pickerel (walleye), whitefish, myriah (lingcod or burbot), goldeye, suckers, and sturgeon. Eggs from ducks, geese, and prairie chicken were used. Later, chicken eggs became a favorite.

The berries eaten were blueberries, saskatoon, chokecherries, pincherries, high bush cranberries, low bush cranberries (red berries), raspberries, strawberries, gooseberries, loganberries, huckleberries, bunch berries, soapberries, cloudberry, moose berries, red currants, and black currants. Nuts, particularly hazelnuts, were very plentiful. Wilderness plants used were rose (hips and petals of the flowers), cattails, tiger lily (bulbs), wild onions, wild mint, wild sage, wild turnip, dandelions, wild potato, wild rhubarb, common pigweed, lamb's-quarters, nettles, ostrich ferns (fiddleheads), willow, pine, white poplar, birch, kinikini, and Labrador tea. Later vegetables like potatoes, turnip, corn, carrots, and onions were introduced into the diet.

Preparation of Food

Food preparation and preservation were done by the women. Preparation

methods varied from reserve to reserve, but six common methods were used for cooking meat. Boiling meat on an open fire or on the stove was the most common; other methods were frying, barbecuing (cooked on a stick over an open fire), and baking either in an oven or wrapped in a mixture of clay and dry hay and cooked on coals from an open fire. Meat was also smoked and dried. All meats from wild game, fish, or birds was done in this way. Meat used for pemmican was dried and pounded into fine crumbs. Hot, melted fat or rich marrow oil was used to bind the meat. Variations of pemmican were made by adding dried chokecherries or saskatoons and pounding with the dried meat. Sometimes pemmican was sweetened with birch sap.

All parts of the animal, large or small, were used. The bones were cracked and boiled to get the rich marrow oil for pemmican making. The marrow itself was eaten raw or cooked. The tongue was cooked and was either eaten hot or used for cold cuts. The *guts* (intestines) were well-cleaned, turned inside out, washed, smoked, and dried. The kidneys and liver were eaten raw, immediately after the animal was killed, or pan fried. The brains were eaten raw, fried, or cooked with other organ meats. The heart was smoked, roasted on an open fire, or boiled. The stomach, often called a towel (because it looks like terry cloth), was cooked with the heart and liver. (Special preparation of the stomach was required; all the membranes needed to be removed.)

All the fat was used. Fat from different parts of the animal has distinct flavors and uses. The cracklings from rendered fat became a snack for native children. It was commonly referred to as *Indian Popcorn*.

Blood was taken and drank or cooked later by mixing it with wild onions, cubed meat, and some fats. The hides and skins were used in making clothing, moccasins, and storage bags.

The seasoning of meats was done with wild onions and salt (crystal salt collected from alkaline sloughs).

Methods for cooking fish were the same as for meat. The best fish used for drying and smoking was suckers. Dried fish was sometimes pounded to fine crumbs and a small amount of sugar, grease, and berries were added, and the fish was eaten as a pudding. As with game animals, no part of the fish was thrown away. Fish eggs were fried in fat or used in bannock. The milt and liver were also fried. Trimmings such as head, backbone, fins, and collar were used for making soup stock.

Game birds (waterfowl and upland) were commonly eaten in the fall. Methods of preparation were roasting, frying, boiling, or stewing. During the months of June and July, bird eggs were picked and eaten. However, a concern for the environment and food supply was always kept in mind; therefore, no nest was totally stripped of its eggs.

Wild berries were a significant part of the diets of native people. These fruits provided a good source of Vitamin C and were usually eaten fresh. When berries were plentiful, they were dried and stored. If tallow or fat was in abundance, the fresh berries were put into containers and covered with fat for storage. Chokecherries were sometimes crushed (pit and pulp), fat, and a bit of sugar was added, and then they were cooked. Sometimes this mixture was made into patties and dried for later use. Today, Native people freeze the crushed chokecherries and use them as a relish with meat dishes. The buffalo berry was whipped with sugar and used for making *Indian Ice Cream*.

Hazelnuts in Northeastern Alberta in the early 1900s were plentiful. These were eaten fresh or dried and stored for later use.

Because the supply was plentiful, wilderness plants were used for food or for medicinal purposes. The flowers from wild roses were dried and used for tea. The rose hips were used for preserves (jams and jellies), or when dried, used for tea making and pemmican. The cattail stalk and root were eaten. Pollen was used to thicken soups, and the fluff was perfect for stuffing pillows.

Tiger Lily bulbs and wild rhubarb were used in soup making. Wild onions, wild sage, and wild mint were used as condiments. Wild sage leaves, wild mint leaves, fireweed flower and leaves, labrador leaves and flowers were used for making tea. Dandelion root was dried and used for coffee, and the leaves were eaten raw or cooked. The boiled juice from the dandelion leaves was used for medicinal purposes.

Pigweed, nettles, and fireweed were boiled and eaten as vegetables. Fiddleheads were not plentiful but, when found, were a delicacy.

The sap from birch trees was collected in the spring. It was boiled down and used as a sweetener in many foods. The inner bark of both the birch and pine was eaten raw or dried and pulverized to make flour to bake bread.

Plants Used for Medicinal Purposes

Some of the plants used for medicinal purposes were plantain (leaves), wild rhubarb (root), sagebrush (leaves and flowers), sarsaparilla (root), rag root (root), yarrow (leaves), cranberries (juice), dandelion (juice), and mint (leaves).

The willow tree was used to build a sweat lodge. Peat moss was used in lining the papoose bags (baby bunting bags).

A Special Food

Bannock was introduced to the Native people by the Scots. Today, bannock seems to be the main food for all Native people. Bannock is considered very special and sacred and is served and eaten at all special occasions.

Conclusion

The stories and information provided by the "Kookums" illustrate that the diet of the Native people of Northeastern Alberta in the early 1900s contained a good source of protein, fat, carbohydrates, vitamins, and minerals. Native people lived closely with their environment. They looked after the environment and their environment provided for them. □

Incorporating Family Studies into Junior/Senior High School Home Economics Curriculum Using a Systems Approach

Rita Rae Schneider

Abstract

Across Canada growing concern about family and family issues is reflected in the fact that family studies is now a required component in the junior/senior high school curriculum. There is awareness of the need to better understand family issues and linkages between family and environment from a more holistic perspective. This paper offers for consideration family systems theory as an appropriate perspective for analyzing and understanding family-environmental connections and for integrating the new family component into current home economics programs.

Résumé

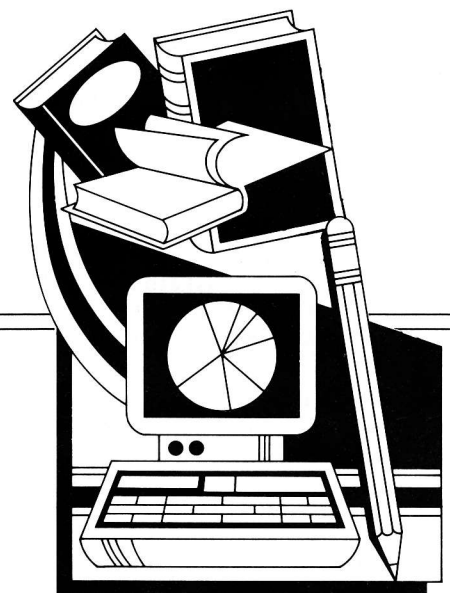
A travers le Canada, le fait que l'étude de la famille soit maintenant partie intégrante du programme secondaire reflète l'intérêt croissant porté aux affaires familiales. On est conscient du besoin de mieux comprendre la famille ainsi que les liens entre la famille et l'environnement dans une perspective d'ensemble. Cet article présente, pour considérations, une théorie des systèmes familiaux comme perspective appropriée pour l'analyse et la compréhension des liens qui rapprochent famille et environnement et pour intégrer la composante de la famille nouvelle dans les programmes d'économie familiale actuels.

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Teenage pregnancy, abortion, divorce, remarriage, child and spousal abuse, aging of the population, and rising health costs are but a few of the key issues impacting upon families today. Effects of such issues upon the well-being of family and the degree to which families are able to respond creatively to these issues are questions of growing national concern. An indication of the depth of this concern lies in the recent mandate to incorporate family studies into Canadian instructional curriculum, particularly at the junior and senior high school levels.

Traditionally, courses taught in home economics have tended to emphasize areas of foods and nutrition, clothing, and shelter. Emphasis has been on acquisition of the related homemaking skills. The teaching focus has been simple or unifocal with little advertance to ways in which these home-related subjects tie into the complexity of family functioning or into the network of the larger world context. In today's rapidly changing society, however, these connections must be made. Lacking awareness about existing relationships, there is no way to realize the interdependencies and impacts families and environments have upon each other, or to comprehend from a more holistic perspective family problems and issues.

The current thrust to include family studies in the home economics curriculum is recognition of and response to the need to better understand these



family-environmental linkages. This movement, therefore, has ramifications for the field of home economics education generally, and more specifically, for the home economics teachers who are faced with the question of how to integrate the new family component into their already full programs. This paper addresses this issue and offers for consideration a possible framework for unifying what may now appear to be disparate elements in a home economics curriculum.

Need for a Unifying Framework

The basic goal of incorporating family studies into the home economics curriculum is not to replace course content taught. The intent is, rather, to enhance and expand the ways we usually think about and present this course content to students. What is being called for is a new mode of thinking.

Understandably, a new mode of thinking can be distressing or frightening because it forces one to move beyond frontiers of a secure and comfortable zone where patterns of thinking are set, and outcomes are predictable. A help in allaying such fear is the realization that a new mode of

thinking cannot happen all at once. It requires both a *structure* whereby this can happen and a *process* of incremental steps which leads to new perceptions and understandings and then to implementation of changes based on these new comprehensions. This is not a case of change simply for the sake of change.

Family Systems Theory: A Unifying Framework

Family systems theory is suggested as the structure or theoretical framework for facilitating a shift in thought patterns for home economics teachers who are trying to construct new paradigms for teaching which will include family studies. The family systems framework is proposed because it offers a basic model for considering linkages between family and environments. Making such connections will serve to help integrate the teaching of foods, clothing, and shelter with family functioning and with the larger world scene as well. The process which leads to such integrative thinking requires time and energy to learn, understand, and apply principles involved. Otherwise, the systems theory framework will remain an empty meaningless formality.

Family Systems Theory: The Conceptual Framework

Family systems theory conceives of family as a bonded unit whose members interact with each other and with other environments. These environments include the natural, sociocultural, and human-built, within which the family is embedded and dependent upon for life, survival, and growth. Family systems theory, therefore, is organized around three basic concepts: the enviroined unit, the environment(s), and the patterns of interaction and transactions between them (Deacon and Firebaugh, 1988; Fine, 1986; Bubolz, Eicher & Sontag, 1979; Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Paolucci, Hall & Axinn, 1977).

The enviroined unit in this theory is the group of individuals who make up the family. Defined as a bonded (enviroined) unit, families with varying configurations of age, sex, marital status, and role patterns can be delineated. Pluralistic groupings, such as nuclear families, single-parents, reconstituted families, kin networks, and communal families can be identified. Their adaptability to and interactions with environments can also be examined.

The second component of this theory is referred to as environments. These include such contexts as the natural (physical), the human-built, and the sociocultural (behavioral). In the natural environment are found such things as air, water, trees, foliage, space, food, and other energy sources needed for life, survival, and growth. The human-built environment includes such things as cities, transportation, communication networks, housing, clothing, processed foods, household appliances, and artistic creations, such as paintings, sculptures, novels, plays, music, and photography. In the sociocultural environment there are the more intangible kinds of things such as customs, codes, belief systems, standards, and values which together constitute the cultural climate of a people.

The third component of the family systems theory is the organizational aspect derived from patterns of unit member interactions, unit interactions with other units, and unit transactions with other environments. The organizational component is in a constant state of flux and evolution due to the reciprocal exchanges between and among unit members and other units and over the boundary transactions with outside environments (Kantor & Lehr, 1975).

Central to family systems theory is the concept that family and environments are both interactive and interdependent. Family and environments are both viewed as affected, directly or indirectly, by the reciprocal interchanges and transactions which take place between them. Thus, embedded within a network of physical, human-built, and sociocultural environments, family is regarded as engaged in the constant business of negotiating exchanges for life, survival, and growth (Bronfenbrenner, 1977; 1979).

Family Systems Theory Applied to Home Economics/Family Studies

As has already been stated, courses taught in home economics in the junior and senior high schools have viewed food, clothing, and shelter from a unifocal perspective and have failed to tie these home-related subjects into the complexity of family functioning or into the larger world perspective. What is being called for by introducing family studies into the curriculum is an

awareness and understanding of linkages that exist between these facets of family living and the larger world environment. Using the food component of the home economics curriculum as an example, this section of the article will indicate in broad stroke how using the systems framework can be a means for making these kinds of linkage.

Ordinarily, courses in food at the secondary level have emphasized food preparation, knowledge, and skill. Food groups have been stressed as a way of ensuring proper nutritional awareness. Much of the instruction has been centered on preparing students to assume their independent adult roles in the home. Without losing any of the value of this course content, teaching foods and nutrition from a family systems perspective can extend this teaching by showing how food preparation and consumption depend upon family functioning and are inseparably linked to the external physical, human-built, and sociocultural environments.

First, forces can be identified which affect a family's nutrition. These forces include such things as world population growth rate, availability of grains, fruits, vegetables, and meats, growing and processing procedures, distribution practices, and import-export regulations. Closer to home, factors to be considered include such things as unemployment, strikes, inflation, weather and environmental conditions, supply and demand. Within the family unit itself, customs and religious beliefs which regulate what a family does or does not eat can be part of course consideration.

Secondly, foods and nutrition can be related to certain diseases which regulate the kind and amount of food intake. Undernutrition and protein deficiency can be linked to health problems in much of today's population, anorexia and bulimia being cases in point.

Thirdly, it can be pointed out that changes in family structure appear to be linked to changes in family organization and consumption of certain kinds of food. For example, Robbins (1989) indicates that the rising divorce rates, later marriages, and the widespread choice on the part of many to remain single may all be contributing to noticeable changes in the nation's eating habits. Many more people are found to be eating outside the home in

fast-food restaurants or bringing already cooked meals home after the long work day.

Course Components for Teaching Family Systems Theory

If the family systems theoretical framework is used by home economics teachers for teaching family studies in junior and senior high schools, components of the course will have to include clear definition of terms such as family, system and ecosystem, environment(s), boundary, interactions, and transactions. Crucial elements in course presentation will include the use of models by teachers. This is followed by immediate application of principles through student involvement in the development of a creative model that relates to a family issue discussed or to a special concern of the student. Direct involvement in model construction is an effective way of concretizing the abstract.

Summary

Using family systems theory as the unifying framework for teaching family studies to junior and senior high school students provides a tool for helping them understand families and family issues from a broader perspective than is possible using an unifocal approach. The systems focus allows for understanding that family issues are complex and not easily resolved, that every individual is interdependent with every other individual and with the surrounding environment(s), and that personal and/or collective actions have reciprocal effects upon those performing the act, upon others, and upon the environment(s). In a world of constant change, where families are not only undergoing profound transitions in identity and structure but also facing new problems accruing from these changes, it is extremely important that they have a way of analyzing and understanding themselves and the world around them. Family systems

theory is proposed as offering an appropriate perspective for helping students work toward such comprehension. □

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Home Economics Communication in an Information-Based Society

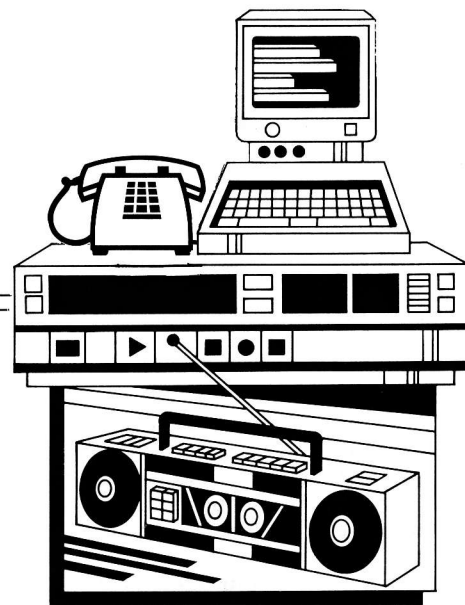
Elizabeth Shears and Arthur Shears

Abstract

In today's information-based society, home economists must be able to access and to utilize modern communications and information technologies such as electronic mail, computer conferencing, and desktop publishing. Traditional communications courses which form part of most home economics undergraduate curricula may not prepare them for this task. In this paper, a model of purposeful communication is presented which provides a framework within which the use of modern communications and information technologies can be viewed. In the purposeful model, communication is developed in a systematic manner to achieve specific objectives. It is suggested that home economists will apply these new technologies in the preparation and delivery stages of communication. The second article in this two-part series describes the development of a graduate level course in modern communications for home economists.

Résumé

Aujourd'hui, dans une société basée sur l'information, les économistes familiaux devraient être capables d'accéder aux communications modernes et d'utiliser les technologies d'information comme le courrier électronique, les conférences-videos, les postes de travail informatisés. Traditionnellement, les cours de communications qui font partie de la plupart des programmes universitaires en économie familiale ne les préparent pas pour cette tâche. Dans cet article, un modèle de communication est présenté, lequel fournit un cadre pour visualiser l'utilisation de communications modernes et l'information technologique. Dans le modèle proposé, la communication est développée de manière systématique pour atteindre des objectifs spécifiques. Il est recommandé que les économistes familiaux appliquent ces nouvelles technologies particulièrement lors des stages de communication. Le deuxième article de cette série décrit le développement d'un cours de communications modernes au niveau des études supérieures pour économistes familiaux.



home computers at the end of 1986 (Dutton, Rogers & Jun, 1987). In the workplace, computer terminals and microcomputers are making their way onto more desks. Word processing, data base management, graphics, and desk top publishing packages are making the production and manipulation of information easier. New professionals entering the workforce are expected to have at least a basic familiarity with them. Today, one can send or receive documents by facsimile (fax), correspond through electronic mail, hold a meeting with colleagues across the country using audio or video teleconferencing, and access hundreds of electronic data banks. One can also check for abstracts from indexes stored on CD-ROM, or take further training in many subject areas via interactive videodisk or computer assisted learning (TV Ontario, 1984).

As the profession of home economics prepares itself to move into the 21st century, it is timely to look more deeply at this particular professional area — the ability to utilize and control these communication technologies. Earlier this decade, Wanda Young (1980) reported on a study to determine communication competencies of home economics practitioners and identified several: the ability to converse, interpersonal communications, public speaking, presentation strategies, etc. It is interesting but not

Introduction

Canada is rapidly becoming an information-based society in which we rely on the preparation, communication, and digestion of information for successful realization of both our private and professional lives. The vast majority of Canadian homes have telephones, radios, and televisions. More than fifty per cent of households have video cassette recorders. If one cautiously extrapolates from studies done in the United States, some 16% of households had

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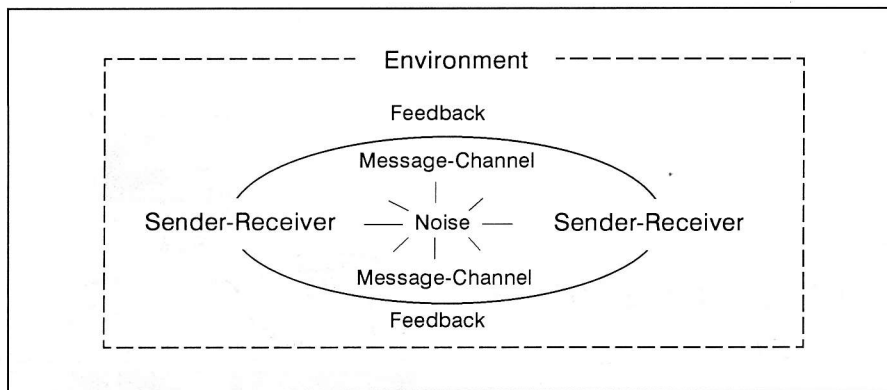


Figure 1. Sender-receiver model of communication

surprising to note that the competency relating to the technology of communication came well down on the list. Perhaps, professional pride prevents us from giving too much emphasis or importance to technological matters.

Traditional Communication Skills

A look at a typical communications course in a home economics programme reflects this particular bias. Usually, such courses include a thorough discussion of communication theory, with time allocated to interpersonal and business/professional communication. Topics covered include verbal and non-verbal communication, effective listening, interviewing, leadership, and participation in meetings. How to give a speech, an illustrated talk, a demonstration, or lecture are often included. Technology is most probably covered with reference to how to use audiovisual equipment and how to make audiovisual aids. There is more than likely no reference to the newer communication technologies and their role in professional life. With statistics clearly identifying the increase in popularity of use of such technologies, it is no longer acceptable for us to ignore them as a necessary part of our professional development.

Heather El Gamel (1987), writing on one aspect of home economics — nutrition education — identifies a number of technologies that nutritionists (and by implication other home economics professionals) can use to spread their messages in Canada. She suggests that the mass media such as radio and television are not being fully utilized for educational purposes, and that the newer technologies such as teletext, audioconferencing, and computer conferencing are often over-

looked. Communications Canada (1987) supports this view and identifies the application of information technology to the delivery of education, training, health care, and other social services as one of the central challenges of the information society. Canada is not the only place where the mass media and newer technologies are being promoted and applied to improve the health and general well-being of families. Several articles (Shears & Shears, 1987; Shears, 1988) describe examples of applications in Third World situations. Projects there have ranged from audioconferencing in the Andes to satellite communication in the Indian sub-continent. In our twinning endeavors overseas we should perhaps be looking more to the roles that these technologies can play in the development process.

Information Technologies Within a Model of Communication

As professionals, home economists must understand the potential offered by these new technologies and be able to use them in their work environment. At the same time, there is a danger which must be avoided. Individuals can easily become dazzled by technology and use it for its own sake rather than to meet a clearly identified communication need. To avoid this error, it is very important to understand the context of communication. The simplistic sender-receiver model of communication (Fig 1) often offers little guidance regarding this context. A more useful model may be that of *purposeful communication* as shown in Figure 2.

In most professional situations such as new staff or intern training, additions of new technology to the work environment, promotion and its increased requirement for more responsible and diverse communication, there is generally a need to communicate purposefully. In purposeful communication, one is concerned not only with being effective, i.e. ensuring that the message is received as intended, but also with trying to achieve an actual change in the situation (an improvement). All of the elements of communication as we understand them are still inherent within the purposeful communication model, but the context and purpose of the communication assume clearer roles, thereby further improving the communication process.

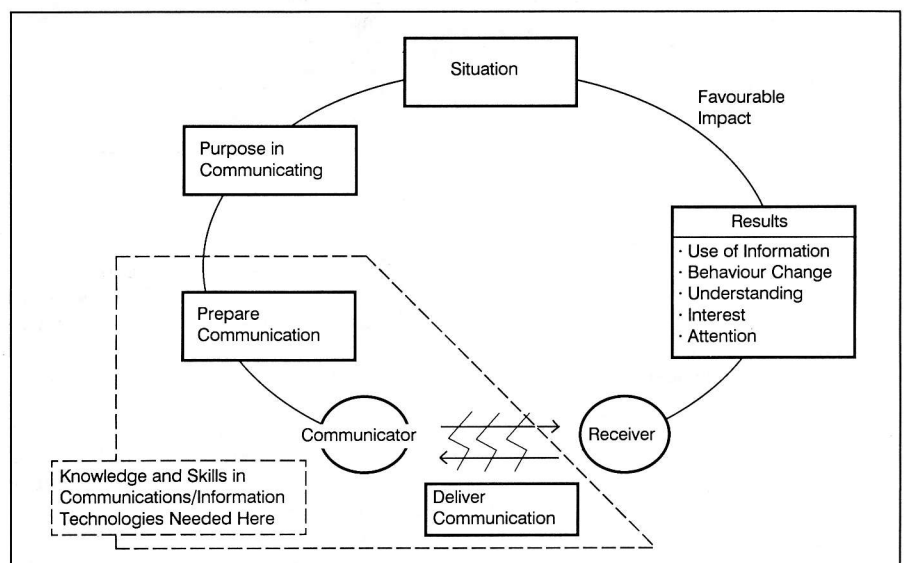


Figure 2. Model of purposeful communication

In this model of purposeful communication, any communication starts with an unsatisfactory situation. As previously stated, there is a need for staff training or even for a public education programme. The situation is first clearly investigated, and, once needs are clarified, the goals and objectives for the communication can be set. This is followed by the preparation of the message. Successful communication must gain the attention and interest of the receiver. If well-designed, the message should also achieve understanding and acceptance. The receiver should then apply the new knowledge, attitudes, or skills to bring about improvement in the situation.

The areas of this model in which the professional as the communicator will most require knowledge and/or skills, in both the old and newer technologies, are in communication *preparation* and *delivery*. For example, desk top publishing allows relatively easy preparation of professional print material. The home economics professional has the potential to be not only the author but also printer, publisher, and distributor. The humble telephone can also be used in innovative ways, such as was done in the telephone nutrition course for expectant mothers in New Jersey (Lennon, 1985). Similarly, a professional development workshop or information exchange could potentially be carried out between multiple external sites by a home economist skilled in the use of audio-conferencing. Or, several technologies could be combined to tackle a communication situation. For example, fax machines are often used to forward text material to distant sites prior to an audio conference being held.

Examples of New Technologies

There are many new technologies which have something useful to offer the home economics professionals in their work situation. Some of those which are commonly available in professional settings include: teleconferencing (audio conferencing, audio plus, video conferencing), desk top publishing, electronic mail, video technology, compact disks, dial-in data bases, videotext, videodisk, audio cassette, radio, and television. Other new developments include computer-assisted learning, interactive videodisk, and compact disk interactive.

Perhaps a more detailed discussion of a few selected examples will more clearly identify their value to home economists.

Computer Conferencing

Computer conferencing is a powerful and effective means of electronic communication and is a cross between a face-to-face meeting and a newsletter. A conference is set up and usually has several topics. Individuals join the conference electronically, read the previous comments, and add their own views. In this way, individuals get to debate an issue, share views, and may reach a consensus. In education, computer conferencing has been used to provide tutorials to students in distance education or give on-campus students an opportunity for discussions after regular class hours. Professional home economists could connect with a group of their colleagues to discuss general points of interest, establish an electronic bulletin board, or set up a problem conference where job-related problems could be described and possible solutions put forward by other members of the conference.

Electronic Mail

Electronic mail (E-mail) allows professionals to use computers to send electronic messages to other parts of the building, across the city, across the nation, or internationally. Individuals have their own mail box and can compose, send, and receive messages at any time. Envoy 100, Netnorth, and iNet are some electronic networks used for E-mail. The communication software needed for E-mail also allows one to tap into the thousands of data bases available worldwide which contain news items, stock quotations, library lists, and other items. This form of communication has the potential to be instantaneous, is relatively inexpensive to run, and could provide professionals with greater opportunities to share ideas and information.

Audio conferencing

Audio conferencing involves connecting several persons together in a conference telephone call. Applications of this technology have had a major impact in both business and education settings. A number of universities in Canada and elsewhere have used audio conferencing to support distance education courses.

Businesses have also found audio conferencing an effective way of meeting without the expense of hotel and travel. Home economists could use this technology for district or regional meetings for both administrative and educational purposes.

Conclusion

Use of any of these new technologies assumes that: 1) individuals understand the potential offered by each, and 2) they can personally apply the technology or can identify and access someone else who can. As has been stated earlier in this article, traditional communications courses for home economists do not usually include either the theoretical background or the hands-on application of these technologies. The home economist may therefore not be able to fully participate in today's information-based society. As we ponder the preparation of the home economics professional for the twenty-first century, we need to seriously contemplate the gaps in current curricula.

The second article in this two-part series will describe a pilot course in modern communications and information technologies which was offered by a Canadian university to graduate level home economics students. □

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Child and Adolescent Suicide

Grant Charles and Heather Coleman

Abstract

Youth suicide represents one of our greatest national and family tragedies. Most authorities believe it is of epidemic proportions and the figures are continuing to surge. Yet, the whole area is fraught with myths and biases that many in the helping professions struggle to overcome in their efforts to provide competent services of detection, intervention, and prevention.

Résumé

Le suicide des jeunes représente une des plus grande tragédies sur le plan national et familial. La plupart des autorités croient que le suicide a pris des proportions épidémiques et les données vont en augmentant. Qui plus est, ce milieu est rempli de mythes et de superstitions qui viennent entraver les démarches des professionnels dans leurs efforts pour offrir des services compétents de détection, d'intervention et de prévention.



There has been a dramatic increase in the suicide rates of children of all ages during the past twenty-five years. Although suicide is the tenth leading cause of death in the general population, it ranks as third among our children and is topped only by accidents and homicide. In Canada, where the incidence of suicide in other age groups has remained relatively stable, the rate of suicide in the child and adolescent age group has increased about twice as much as the total population (Farberow, 1985).

Furthermore, it is generally acknowledged that there is a discrepancy between the official reported statistics and the actual rates. Some suicides are masked by the nature of the incident. Lone occupant car accidents are sometimes suicides disguised in a "socially acceptable manner". Some estimates place actual rates between three to four times greater than the official rates (Houston, 1986).

Apart from the difficulties in the detection of actual cases, it is likely that causes of death are mislabelled to shield

surviving family members from social stigma. Despite the increasingly large number of people who have been impacted upon by the suicide or suicide attempt of a family member or friend, it is not a widespread topic of discussion in our society. Rather suicide, especially among children and adolescents, remains a taboo subject.

In addition, suicide is rarely accounted for in very young children although there is ample reason to believe that young children can be suicidal and capable of completing the act (Pfeffer, 1986). Evidence is starting to accrue suggesting that suicide attempts in the under 10 age group, some of whom are even under 5, is rising (Hawton, 1986). We have also witnessed a 2.6 times increase for the 10 to 14 year old group and a 3.3 fold increase in the 15 to 19 year old category (Frederick, 1985). Suicide by our young people represents a social problem of major proportion in our society today.

Methods of suicide vary depending on the accessibility of the means of killing oneself. In the United States, for

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example, where firearms are widely available, pistols, rifles, and the like are the most commonly used method of self-inflicted death (Frederick, 1985). In Canada, where there is more restricted access to firearms, other means are more widely used. Most common are hanging and strangulation, poisoning and overdosing, and jumping from high places. There is a gender difference in the selection of methods with males generally choosing more violent and final means of killing themselves (Hawton, 1986). Although there is some suggestion that the gender gap is narrowing, males are generally more successful in completing suicide while females outnumber males by three to one in their attempts (Frederick, 1985). However, there has been a rise in completed suicides in both gender groups.

Although there needs to be a more thorough examination of the ethnic differences in the completed and attempted suicide rates, there is ample reason to believe that in Canada, the Native population is at particular risk (Hawton, 1986). This increased risk is present throughout their life cycle but is most evident among the young people. Native peoples have had more than their fair share of despair and other risk factors associated with suicide.

Etiological Considerations

Antecedents of youth suicide involve a complex interplay of psychosocial factors and is, in fact, a "barometer of psychosocial stress among the young". No one reason predominates as a cause of suicide. An "ecological" approach gives a holistic picture and takes into account psychological and coping resources of the youth coupled with the quality of the social milieu in which adolescents find themselves. The transactions between the child and environment are never static, and investigation into maladaptive patterns yields some valuable insights.

There are a range of reasons why young people try to kill themselves (Hawton, 1987). These range from a masked cry for help to an attempt to escape from a perceived impossible or chronic situation. It is seldom a wish to die as much as an inability to continue living with the pain. Suicide becomes the means to gain control of one's suffering.

Although those close to the victim may be prone to attribute motives to

outright manipulation, "it is simplistic, condescending, and usually erroneous to interpret an adolescent suicide attempt as solely manipulative chicanery or hostile coercion" (Curran, 1987, p. 47). An important subgroup of young people are motivated by revenge (Maris, 1985). The youth may believe that they have been grievously wronged through some injustice in an important interpersonal relationship. A suicide serves to "pay back" the offender. Whatever the motive, a suicide attempt is a desperate cry for help by the youngster and conveys a strong message that a change is needed, although the adolescent may not be cognizant or capable of how to accomplish this act.

Suicidal youths usually experience difficulties in their immediate environment. Family disruption and turmoil is strongly correlated with suicidal incidents. Themes of separation and loss pervade. Family structure may be riddled with death, divorce, marital conflict, and poor parent-child relationships. Significant evidence points to the early separation of a love object, such as through the death of a parent (Diekstra, 1987; Hawton, 1986). The child may not only have lost a parent but probably had an ambivalent or unsatisfactory relationship with that parent. Even more recently, findings suggest that a history of sexual and physical abuse place the child at greater risk for suicidal behavior (Pfeffer in Diekstra, 1987).

Other evidence suggests that existence of a psychiatric disorder in another family member may be a contributory factor in adolescent suicide (Shaffer, as cited by Hawton, 1986). This serves several concurrent functions for the suicidal youth. Family emotional resources are depleted, with not enough attention and affection being available for the young person. The child may feel neglected and rejected. Often, with depressive disorders, behavior, whether genetically-based or -modelled, suicide is an accompanying configuration, and suicide attempts may be clustered in families.

Not surprisingly, psychiatric disorders, identified postmortem, were prevalent in this population. Symptoms ranged from emotional symptoms to antisocial behavior (Hawton, 1986). Many children had made a previous suicide attempt. The children are inclined to have a poor self-concept and be filled with self-loathing.

The child, isolated within the family, is also less likely to belong to a cohesive

peer structure. This may be due in part to family mobility (Hawton, 1986). The child may have experienced rejection and isolation among friends which refuels the feelings of the earlier familial loss. Religious involvement decreases the risk of suicide and this has largely been attributed to the fact that church attendance is indicative of greater social cohesiveness and social skills.

The youth may also experience overwhelming stresses elsewhere in life. Some evidence suggests that suicidal youths have a higher than average intelligence, yet they chronically underachieve at school or face discouraging employment prospects. There is a higher than expected number of children who are disabled to varying degrees. This includes learning disabled as well as more visible physical problems. With notably poor problem-solving capacities, these children are also at risk for substance abuse. This not only creates situations where high risk behavior becomes predominant, but also lowers inhibitions that may have prevented self-destructive behavior previously.

Identification and Risk Assessment

Warning signs by young people who are at risk of being suicidal fall into five general categories: emotional, behavioral, biological, intellectual, and life crisis (Charles & Matheson, 1989). One of the prime indicators, depression, is often more difficult to detect in young people than in adults. Generally, young people do not manifest the overt classical signs of depression as their adult counterparts (Frederick, 1985). The younger the child is, then the less likely the probability of depression and its accompanying vegetative signs being the primary indicator.

Frequently, depression in the suicidal youngster is masked, primarily by "acting-out" behavior. Generally not very articulate with their thoughts and feelings, children and adolescents exhibit cues through behavioral indicators. They may develop irritability, problems in school, low frustration tolerance, or conduct disorders. The danger in this regard is that potential sources of support may become antagonistic and unsympathetic towards the child and exacerbate the situation and the feelings of hopelessness and isolation.

A history of previous suicidal threats or attempts is another cogent indicator of risk. It increases the probability of successful completion manyfold (Hawton, 1986). Unfortunately, in such circumstances, potential helpers may have attributed the threats to manipulation and grow impatient with the child's behavior. Some interesting research (Curran, 1987) suggests that peers in particular may take great pains to avoid a school mate who has attempted suicide, which places the youth at further risk to successfully complete suicide. Many other significant people frequently exhibit an aversive reaction to an attempted suicide which has the potential of further isolating the individual. At this juncture, the child becomes further isolated from external sources of support and may turn even more inward.

The child may feel a pervasive sense of hopelessness, helplessness, and severe isolation (McBride-Valente, 1984). These feelings stimulate a circular pattern which entrenches the feelings further. As this circular pattern becomes more repetitive, the dysfunctional patterns become more established. The greater the possibility that significant others will react in an equally negative and rejecting fashion increases. This in turn will exacerbate the already intense feelings that the young person is experiencing, particularly those of isolation, rejection, anger, low self-esteem, hopelessness, and helplessness. As a consequence of the heightening of these overwhelming negative feelings, the child feels increasingly out of control and escalates the already antisocial behavior that does little to endear himself or herself to people who are close to the child. To the young person, in the face of seemingly insurmountable life problems and unbearably painful negative emotions, death represents a viable alternative, if only to escape from what they perceive as unbearable misery.

Depression and anger are often viewed as different sides of the same coin and it should then come as no surprise that a suicidal incident may follow in the wake of a violent episode. Aggressive behavior is increasingly being strongly connected with suicide attempts. Hostility and anger among young people is being connected to the rate of suicide (Hendin, 1987; Pfeffer, 1986; Cohen-Sandler, Berman & King, 1982).

With this series of events, combined with the impulsivity of young people, suicide becomes notably difficult to predict (Charles & Matheson, 1989). Given the rather barren and unavailable environment that the adolescents find themselves in, many seemingly insignificant stressors could precipitate a suicidal incident — the proverbial "straw that broke the camel's back". The spark may be one too many arguments with a parent, a harsh word from a friend, or a reprimand from a teacher (Hawton, 1986). Major life stressors such as the death of someone close, a move, or break up with a boyfriend or girlfriend may also provide the impetus for suicide. Although easily dismissed by others who are unaware of the emotional turmoil seething inside, the precipitant may in fact tax the youngster's resources beyond their ability to cope.

Intervention

Although frequently labelled as manipulative, suicidal threats by children should be taken seriously. Adults close to the youth need to be cognizant of behavioral cues manifested by the young person. Behaviors characteristically labelled as "bad" or "mad" need to be reinterpreted as "sad". Asking the youngster pointed questions in this regard does not plant a seed in the mind of the child. Contrary to popular belief, heeding the warning signs does not reinforce the young person's maladaptive behavior, nor does it "play into their hands" by attention-seeking or placing the helping person in the position of being emotionally blackmailed (Ross, 1985). It is dangerous to ignore these since seemingly benign gestures are frequently precursors of future suicide attempts (Charles & Matheson, 1989). If one does not confront the situation or tries to ignore it, there is an increased likelihood that the "gesture" will escalate in severity. For many, this spiral of non-intervention and increased gesturing will continue until there is either an intervention or a successful suicide.

The focal point of crises intervention is to disrupt the negative circular transactions and help important key people to do likewise. The beginning phase of breaking the pattern, where, instead of avoidance reactions, the significant other reaches out to the youth, becomes the first step in rectifying the isolation.

As the helper perseveres in reaching out to the youth, a relationship becomes stronger, and the youth lets the guard down once hope and acceptance is conveyed. Interactions become increasingly positive, and the youth is engaged in active problem-solving activity.

In the event of a completed suicide, survivors are left to deal with an array of feelings. Parents face the stigma by others and are burdened with a tremendous amount of guilt. The normal grieving process is complicated greatly in the face of the guilt they feel and the blame placed upon them by others (Hawton, 1986). It is understandable why so many families attempt to attribute the cause of the death to other factors, such as an accident.

Peer groups too experience overwhelming feelings of grief and guilt, particularly if they were the victim's confidante and knew that the victim was in distress. Others may castigate themselves for failing to be sensitive to the cues sent out. They may feel remorseful that they did nothing to prevent the suicide. Aftershocks may ripple through the student body. The fact that suicidal behavior often appears to have an epidemic or contagious effect (Hawton, 1986; Shaffer, 1985) places tremendous responsibility on authorities responsible for the well-being of children.

Prevention

Perhaps the most important step in contributing to the prevention of suicide by young people is to accept the severity of the problem. As has been mentioned, suicide is a growing issue among our youth. Only by addressing our concerns in an open and direct manner can we begin to effectively confront the problem. Avoidance of the topic only serves to further isolate those individuals who are feeling helpless and hopeless. Society must be willing to accept that an increasing number of young people are attempting to kill themselves.

Coupled with this acceptance is the need for frank community-wide discussions regarding youth suicide. We need, as adults, to challenge ourselves and our communities to destroy the myths which help prevent intervention. This includes accepting that young people are capable of feeling pain. It also includes accepting that not all young people perceive life as an

enjoyable experience. An increasing number of young people see death, not life, as a goal. Death brings an end to their pain.

Perhaps the most effective way to begin to address the issue is through suicide prevention training. This preventive education can be established for professionals, parents, and young people. The training should assist people in exploring their own attitudes and values regarding suicide as well as helping individuals learn the indicators of possible life-threatening behaviors. Community education of this nature is relatively easy to establish and can be quite cost effective.

Another component of prevention is advocacy. There needs to be a concerted effort on the part of communities to establish effective crisis intervention counselling programmes and distress phone lines. Communities also need to begin to assertively address the causes of youth suicide. Only through collective action and responsibility can we explore answers to family breakdown and family violence. The resolution of these broader issues will contribute to the decrease in suicidal behavior.

The final form of prevention is to examine types of postvention. It is not enough to just deal with the suicidal behavior of an individual. We also, through discussion and education, need to look at the impact of suicide and suicide attempts on the people around the individual. If we can assist the survivors in discussing their guilt,

anger, and feelings of helplessness, then we can take a step closer to preventing the next suicide.

Summary

Suicide rates among adolescents continue to climb. Although numbers in younger children are smaller, they still are the focus of concern. In Canada, rates of suicide for young people have more than doubled while adult rates have dropped. Children from families with death, divorce, or other forms of disruption are at particular risk, as are male children. Signs of impending trouble are often misinterpreted, as those around the youth tend to look only for the classical signs of adult depression.

Antisocial and violent behaviors serve to leave the children further isolated and stigmatized when they may need understanding and acceptance the most. Such behaviors tend to push away potential helpers which further leaves the children frustrated and isolated. We need to go beyond our natural impulses of anger and develop a demonstrable concern for the youngsters — this may be the only sign of hope they have.

Clearly, prevention is our only option. Young people and their families need better social supports and problem solving capacities. Professionals involved with young people require accurate information and skills with which to identify high risk children and to intervene in an effective way. □

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The Food Problems of Low-Income Single Mothers: An Ethnographic Study

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Abstract

The food problems of a sample of low-income single mothers were examined using an ethnographic research design which included participant observations and in-depth interviews. Research findings indicated that the women and their children routinely consumed diets which satisfied neither their notions of good nutrition nor their personal food preferences. Their chief concern in food selection was getting "enough to eat". Decisions about food expenditures were made in the context of long-term impoverishment and financial insecurity. Food purchases were weighed against other possible expenditures, some of which were considered to be of equal or greater importance to long-term survival. Although the women had developed strategies which permitted them and their children to usually consume an amount of food which was considered sufficient for day-to-day survival, the regular consumption of qualitatively substandard food contributed to their overall sense of impoverishment.

Résumé

Le problème de l'alimentation des mères célibataires à faible revenu a été étudié à partir du modèle de recherche ethnographique, lequel inclut l'observation de participants et des entrevues en profondeur. Les résultats de la recherche indiquent que les femmes et leurs enfants consomment routinement des aliments qui ne satisfont ni à leur notion d'une bonne alimentation ni à leurs aliments préférés. Leur intérêt premier dans la sélection des aliments était "d'en avoir assez pour manger". Leur décision sur les dépenses alimentaires étaient faites dans un contexte d'appauvrissement à longs termes et d'insécurité financière. L'achat d'aliments était pesé avec d'autres dépenses possibles, lesquelles étaient considérées d'égal ou de plus grande importance pour la survie à longs termes. Quoique les femmes aient développé des stratégies leur permettant de consommer, pour elle-même et leurs enfants, une quantité de nourriture considérée suffisante pour la survie quotidienne, la consommation régulière d'aliments de moindre qualité contribue à leur sens général d'appauvrissement.

Evidence that Canada's poor are facing food problems of some description comes from the large and ever-growing numbers now turning to charitable food assistance programs for help. Some understanding of these problems can be gleaned from a review of family food expenditure data and food consumption surveys. However, little has been written that examines the interrelationships between the food behaviors of low income Canadians and their poverty. As well, there is a paucity of

research into the range and nature of food problems that this group is experiencing.

An ethnographic study was designed to examine the food problems of a small sample of low-income, sole-support mothers in a large metropolitan centre. This research approach facilitated an investigation of the women's food-related concerns as they defined them, and provided insight into the context in which their food problems arose. The research methods used are outlined, and the findings discussed.

Evidence of Income-Related Food Problems

Over 3.5 million Canadians — 14.9% of the total population — live in poverty (Battle, 1988). One million of these are children under the age of 16. The likelihood of being poor is greatest for those Canadians who are poorly

educated, unemployed, on government assistance, or recent immigrants, but the greatest single risk factor for poverty is being female. Single mothers and their children are particularly vulnerable to poverty, and in 1986, 56% of all such families had incomes below the Statistics Canada "poverty line" (Battle, 1988).

Poverty is virtually guaranteed to families who are financially dependent on social assistance programs. Although the rates for social assistance are set provincially, all are lower than the poverty line (Patterson, 1986). For example, the 1987 annual income of a single-parent family with two children on social assistance (Family Benefits) in Toronto was \$14,750. This was \$4,750 below the poverty line for the area, and \$4,500 short of meeting the family's minimum budgetary requirements as determined by the Social Planning Council of Metropolitan Toronto

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(Social Assistance Review Committee, 1988). Poverty is also assured for those families who must rely on a single salary which is at or near the minimum wage, since these wage levels are so low (Battle, 1988).

Direct evidence of the food problems faced by low-income Canadians comes from the large numbers who are now turning to charitable food assistance programs for help in meeting their food needs. In the last decade, Canadians have witnessed the establishment and proliferation of food banks nationwide. These agencies coordinate the centralized collection and distribution of donated foodstuffs to meal and grocery outlets, which in turn distribute the food to those in need. There are 134 food banks operating in Canada, with at least one in almost every major centre in the country (Canadian Association of Food Banks, 1989). There are no national and few provincial statistics on the numbers of people seeking food assistance. The few surveys which have been conducted, however, suggest a problem of significant dimension nationwide (Daily Bread Food Bank, 1988; Levens & Clague, 1986; Riches, 1986). In Metropolitan Toronto alone, over 78,500 people are helped by food assistance programs each month. Since the programs began this number has been steadily growing (Daily Bread Food Bank, 1988).

Little is known about the nature or severity of the food problems low-income households experience. Our present awareness comes primarily through the popular press, where these problems are commonly depicted as "hunger". This label implies an acute, immediate food shortage. Reports that a large proportion of those requesting food assistance do so repeatedly (Daily Bread Food Bank, 1989; Levens & Clague, 1986; Riches, 1986) indicate that the problems are not transitory, but are chronic in nature.

Indirect evidence of the food problems faced by low-income Canadians comes from food expenditure and food consumption surveys. Food expenditure is positively related to income (Adrian & Daniel, 1976; Statistics Canada, 1986). Family food expenditure data indicate that low-income households spend a greater proportion of their income on food than any other income group, even though they spend less in absolute terms (Robbins

& Zafiriou, 1987). Household food consumption surveys reveal that low-income households purchase a different, less expensive mix of foods (Morgan, Peterkin, Johnson, & Gougentas, 1986; U.S. Department of Health and Human Services and U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1986). Nutrient and energy intakes are not necessarily compromised in this process, but the potential for inadequate intakes is clearly increased (Bureau of Nutritional Sciences, 1974; Maxwell & Simkins, 1985; Myres & Kroetsch, 1978; Peterkin, Kerr, & Hama, 1982; Richard, Sevigny, & Roberge, 1984).

In addition to the limitations on food selection imposed by a restricted food budget, low-income families' food selections are also limited by the fact that this group tends to pay higher prices than higher income consumers for the same food items (Maxwell & Simkins, 1985; Roberts, 1982). Furthermore, because low-income consumers are already purchasing low-cost foods, they have little possibility of substituting less expensive foods when prices rise or their disposable income falls (Donaldson, 1976; Karp & Green, 1983). Because low-income households already devote the bulk of their financial resources to meeting their food and shelter needs (Campbell, Katamay, & Connolly, 1988; Robbins & Zafiriou, 1987), it is rarely feasible for them to buffer the rising costs of food or shelter by reorganizing their spending patterns. Such expenditures cannot be increased without compromising other essential financial demands. It is not surprising that so many families have been forced to turn to charitable agencies for food assistance. Karp and Green (1983) suggest that food selection will become increasingly limited and the risk of nutrient deficiencies will escalate for families who cannot accommodate rising food prices by increasing food expenditures.

Although the growth of food relief programs provides a graphic attestation of the current inability of many Canadians to independently meet their food needs, there is a dearth of data on these food problems. There are few studies which examine the nature and range of food problems experienced, or the interactions of factors which influence the food expenditure and food selection patterns of low-income families.

Given the paucity of studies with an integrated focus on food and poverty, it was appropriate to begin with an exploratory and descriptive research methodology to examine food problems. Sole-support mothers relying on food assistance programs were identified because of their extreme vulnerability to poverty and to the food problems which appear to accompany it. An ethnographic study was conducted to gain insight into the context in which food problems arise and how the women themselves would characterize such problems.

Methods

Ethnography. Ethnographic research, which has its roots in anthropology and sociology, falls under the rubric of qualitative research. The philosophical assumption which underlies the approach is the belief that human behavior is integrally related to the context in which it occurs and that the behavior cannot be understood without knowing its meaning for the participants (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982). Ethnographic research entails "field work" where the researcher is immersed in the setting and the lives of the people being studied. Through unobtrusive but systematic observations and interviews, the field researcher becomes intimately familiar with the phenomena under study (Taylor & Bogdan, 1984). This familiarization process usually takes two forms. First, through participant observation, the researcher observes and sometimes participates in everyday activities in order to develop an understanding of the people and the phenomena under study. Detailed field notes are used to document the researcher's observations and insights. Second, through the use of interviews, the researcher comes to understand how the subjects experience and make sense of their lives, as the subjects present their viewpoints in their own words.

The tasks of the ethnographer are to comprehend the subjects' viewpoints, to make explicit their cultural roots, and to develop explanatory frameworks to depict these understandings to the outside world. The researcher is involved in an interpretive activity and as such is part of the research process. Comprehending the personal meanings in experience depends upon the researcher's ability to enter into the material, to respond to it with insight, and to communicate the findings in a

way that sparks recognition in the reader. In doing this, the researcher inevitably brings her or his own values, assumptions, history, and understandings to bear on the analysis. During the interpretive process, the researcher must be aware of and confront personal biases and, at the same time, approach the data with a curious and open mind (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982).

There are few canons for the analysis and interpretation of qualitative data. Most analysis involves a systematic review of data, which includes coding and sorting procedures, in order to identify key themes and categories. In many qualitative studies, data analysis occurs concurrently with data collection. The analysis entails a cyclical, interactive dialogue with the data; ideas are explored, and frameworks are developed, then questioned and reconceptualized until the researcher is satisfied that he or she has captured the essence of the phenomenon (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Miles & Huberman, 1984; Strauss, 1987). This intensive analytic work ensures that the internal validity of the findings is high.

Even though the interpretative process is partly intuitive and creative, issues of rigor are important. Two criteria used to assess the rigor of qualitative studies are the comparability and the translatability of the findings (Achterberg, 1988; Bogdan & Biklen, 1982; LeCompte & Goetz, 1982; Lincoln & Guba, 1986; Patton, 1980). Publications of qualitative studies should specify, as clearly as possible, the characteristics of the sample and the constructs generated from the data so that the reader understands the conditions under which the findings emerged. It is desirable to identify explicitly research methods, analytic categories, and detailed characteristics of the phenomena. However, as LeCompte and Goetz (1982) have noted, such detail is not always possible in journal length articles, so that referral to sources providing more complete descriptions of data is important.

Sampling and data collection. Most food assistance programs are administered by community groups. The group identified for this study was located in a subsidized housing community. This group was composed of low-income single mothers who had firsthand experience with income-related food problems. The food program adminis-

tered by the group was established with the objective of providing local food assistance for single-parent families facing periodic, acute food shortages. The site of this program was an ideal natural setting for repeated encounters with low-income single mothers who had food-related concerns. The study was conducted during a six month period of weekly visits to the food distribution site.

The women encountered in this setting were residents in the community and lived on low, fixed incomes (either social assistance or unemployment insurance). The sample was multiracial and included women from a wide variety of backgrounds. Personal crises had precipitated poverty for some of the women, while others had lifelong histories of impoverishment. As well, there was a sizable group of recent immigrants in the community. The women ranged in age from adolescents to women in their mid- to late fifties.

Participant observations and in-depth interviews were used to collect data for the study. Participant observations commenced with the researcher's (Tarasuk) first visit to the community. Most of the early visits were spent watching, listening, and engaging in casual conversations with those who approached the researcher. If anyone expressed curiosity at her presence, she explained that she was interested in learning about life in the community. During visits when truckloads of donated food were delivered, the researcher often helped in the hectic process of unloading the vehicles. As she became a more familiar sight around the centre, she was occasionally assigned specific tasks related to the food storage and distribution process. With time, the women who were most central to the single mothers' group began to speak more freely with the researcher, sharing their own concerns and frustrations. Some of these women later agreed to become interview participants. The trust which developed between a core group of women and the researcher added an important layer of credibility to her presence in the research setting. She was no longer treated with the indifference and suspicion normally accorded to outsiders (and originally to her). Women began to seek out the researcher when she arrived, in order to share their personal "news" with her. The researcher's commitment to acquiring

an understanding of the context in which the women's food-related problems occurred meant that she encouraged the women to talk to her about whatever was important to them. As well, the researcher initiated conversations about the women's food-related concerns, food management practices, food perceptions, and attitudes towards food assistance programs. Observations were documented in detailed field notes. These notes contained descriptive information on 54 individuals.

After a period of eight weeks of observations, in-depth, semi-structured interviews were initiated with a sub-sample of eight women. They were recruited through their involvement in, or contact with a member of the single mother's group. Four selection criteria for recruitment were identified: the women must be living on low, fixed incomes, be sole-support mothers, be residents in the subsidized housing complex, and possess sufficient fluency in English to permit a free-flowing mutually comprehensible dialogue between the participant and the researcher. Because participation was voluntary, sampling was opportunistic. Before cooperation in the study could be obtained, rapport had to be developed either with the participant or a trusted friend. On average, the women were interviewed twice, with the number of interviews being determined by the time it took to cover the four topics. Six of the eight women consented to the tape-recording of their interviews. Detailed notes were made during and after the unrecorded interviewing of the other two women.

During the first interview, each participant described how she came to be a low-income single mother living in that community. Important biographical and contextual information on each woman was obtained in this way. As well, as the women "told their stories" to the researcher, their sense of intimacy with her deepened, and the rapport which was so crucial to this data collection process was strengthened. Questions about food practices, food problems, and food-related concerns were asked. Such questions emerged from remarks the woman had already made. Because the concepts of food and money were so tightly interwoven in the women's lives and were so much a part of their daily struggle, food-related issues usually arose naturally in the flow of the conversation/interview.

Establishing rapport with the research subjects is critical to gaining access to the subjects' perspectives. Because the women in this study generally distrusted outsiders and associated them with the social workers who were perceived to wield such power over their lives, access was gained slowly. Enlisting the women's cooperation in the research project was further complicated by the fact that they could see no tangible or intangible benefits to such an undertaking. To gain and maintain their cooperation, the research had to be conducted in a very informal, nonthreatening manner. It was believed that quantitative instruments on personal and potentially sensitive topics would disrupt rapport and distance the women from the researcher. Consequently, no attempt was made to collect detailed, quantitative data on the women's incomes, personal expenditure patterns, or nutrient and energy intakes.

Data analysis. Data analysis entailed an initial analysis of the content of the field notes and interview transcripts. Interview transcripts were systematically coded and sorted into content-related themes. Using the methods from grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), the researcher analyzed the data inductively. Thematic concepts reflecting key features of the data were developed as the particulars that had been gathered (i.e., data from the field notes and interviews) were grouped, compared, and contrasted. These concepts were refined through on-going comparative analysis until they reflected the diversities and commonalities of all participants. The concepts of competing financial demands, financial insecurity, "good" food, chronic limited food selection, acute food shortages, and reactions to charitable food assistance provided a framework with which to comprehend the experiences and viewpoints of the study sample. Immersion in the natural setting, made possible by the field work, was crucial to this process, because it permitted individual women's experiences to be examined and interpreted within a broader, cultural context. The complementarity of the field notes and interview transcripts strengthened the reliability of the interpretation.

¹A detailed description of the study can be found in Tarasuk, V. (1985). *Food problems of impoverished sole support mothers*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Toronto.

To ensure that the researcher's subjectivity did not override the interpretive process, the assumptions and biases inherent in her world view had to be monitored and bracketed. During data collection the researcher did not discuss her personal views, and during analysis she remained faithful to the data by extensively substantiating emerging concepts with direct quotations and examples. This linking process ensured that the theoretical framework which evolved was grounded in the experiences of the study sample.

Findings

Although the findings of the study were extensive, length restrictions imposed by a journal format preclude a complete presentation of the findings.¹ This article presents an overview of two key conceptual frameworks which emerged from the study: the context of pervasive financial insecurity and its influence on decisions about expenditures on food; and the nature of the perceived food problems and their contribution to the women's overall sense of impoverishment. As other financial demands took precedence over the purchase of "good" food, the women routinely compromised the quality of their food intakes and those of their children. Their diets satisfied neither their food preferences nor their concepts of good nutrition. The key concern in food selection was satisfying energy demands. During severe financial crises, women and their children experienced periodic, acute food shortages and some degree of food deprivation. Each woman appeared to have devised a hierarchy of strategies to cope with such food crises when they arose.

A context of insecurity. All of the women in this study lived on incomes which were insufficient to meet their perceived needs. They lived with constant financial insecurity, struggling to "make ends meet" each month. This financial insecurity was not transient but was a fact of everyday life, and was heightened for some by their fear of losing social assistance benefits. Monthly cheques could be suspended if a woman failed to comply with program policies. As well, the women had little long-term income security because some of the benefits were contingent on their status as single mothers with dependent children, and would be withdrawn when their children were no longer officially dependent.

Decisions on competing priorities. Because the women lived on incomes

that they regarded to be insufficient to meet their needs, they regularly had to weigh their financial priorities and decide which expenditures to meet and which to forego. No expense was without compromise. In the process of choosing between competing financial demands, expenditures on food had to be weighed against expenditures on other goods and services.

All of the women appeared to have defined some basic selection of food which was sufficient to meet their energy needs and those of their children, and which satisfied some minimum internal standard of nutrition and palatability. This food was generally treated as a fixed expense within the woman's monthly budget. Beyond this, however, food purchases had to compete with other perceived needs. Foods that were perceived to be of better quality, more nutritious, or simply more preferred, were often rejected in favor of other expenditures such as shelter, household goods, clothing, transportation, and entertainment. Within their internal framework "needs" were met but "wants" were compromised or set aside.

In this group of women, expenditures on home entertainment were often in competition with expenditures on better quality food. Many women had purchased or were "renting-to-own" television sets, and some paid additional charges for cable, Pay TV, VCRs, and home movie rentals. The following remark is typical of the women's explanations of this priority:

I have that for entertainment, and that's it, because I can't afford to run downtown to the movies and all them other places. So I have this.

Women said they rarely, if ever, dined out or went to movies. The costs of such recreation, when combined with transportation and babysitting charges, were considered prohibitive. Yet they regarded some form of entertainment as essential, both for themselves and for their children. Home entertainment was seen as the affordable compromise. Because the payments for such equipment and services were generally made on a monthly basis, once a woman had decided to make the purchases, they became treated as nondiscretionary expenditures, such as housing or electricity bills. In contrast, better quality food was perceived as a discretionary expense, to be justified

on a day-to-day basis. Given the women's economic constraints, the relative merits of "good food" and the importance of satisfying individual food preferences always had to be weighed against other financial demands. As these other demands took precedence, food quality was frequently compromised.

Decisions on priorities were never irrevocable. Articles which at one time were given financial priority over the purchase of higher quality foods, were often later dispensed with when women faced serious financial crises and were confronted with the prospect of "going hungry". One woman described her lengthy history of selling possessions to resolve crises:

I've had TVs I've had to turn around and sell . . . to get money for food. I've had all kinds of stuff. I've sold washing machines, . . . you name it, I've sold it. . . I think I've had enough furniture in my life . . . (to) probably fill this whole, goddamn apartment building.

The women all appeared to have ranked their possessions in terms of which ones would be sold or forfeited first in the event of a desperate need for cash. The potential resale value of home entertainment equipment and appliances suggested that possessing such items would add to a woman's sense of financial security, albeit at a heavily discounted rate of return. Perhaps this explains some of the determination the women demonstrated in making monthly payments to purchase such goods.

Against this background of competing financial demands and pervasive insecurity, women made decisions about food purchases. In making these decisions the women were acutely aware of the compromises.

Characterization of food problems. The women's usual food consumption practices did not coincide with their images of "good food". The foods their children regularly consumed were regarded as substandard. One woman explained the compromise she routinely made in terms of food quality:

We have to take what we can get, for the price we can get it for, and pray to God that it's good meat or good this or good that. Like it's edible food and it's not always Grade A . . . cause we simply just can't afford it. . . . You don't want to make your family sick or

anything, but you're trying to get the best for your money.

When selecting foods, the women appeared to be concerned primarily with satisfying their energy demands and those of their children. They were preoccupied with having enough food in the house to meet their families' needs. Concerns about the nutritional quality of foods were clearly secondary to the more basic issue of "having something to eat".

The women had clear images of what constituted a "good" diet. They recognized the importance of consuming a variety of foods, including dairy products, fresh fruits and vegetables, meat, poultry, fish, and eggs. "Good food" also meant food which satisfied personal food preferences, and could constitute acceptable meals.

The women cited the absence of good foods as definitive evidence of the substandard nature of their own and their children's diets. They believed it was impossible for them to provide their children with the kinds of foods that they "should" be consuming:

Who in their right mind can run off and buy eggs and milk and cheese and all that stuff? I mean, those are the things that children are supposed to eat every day, but those are not the things that children eat if their families are on a fixed income because nobody can afford it.

Aside from the potential nutritional implications of consumption from a limited selection of foods, there is a sense of deprivation and impoverishment which accompanies these food patterns. A preoccupation with simply having enough food meant that food assumed different meanings than it might for higher income households. Food was not perceived as a source of pleasure or entertainment. Instead, it was a potential source of anxiety and insecurity. In the face of constant concern about running out of food, it was rare to have access to the type of food that many middle and upper income Canadians can take for granted. The following two quotations illustrate incidents that were commonplace in the lives of these low-income women:

To go out and just buy a pizza — you look at one. Either that pizza or three or four loaves of bread, so you change your mind on the damn pizza.

I remember that my kids went for months and months without eating oranges or apples or anything like that . . . I borrowed some money one time and just went and got a dozen oranges in the store, and I'll never forget that feeling. I walked in the house and had a dozen oranges, and I sat down and gave the kids oranges, and I just watched them eat. It was really quite sad 'cause I mean, I was so pleased because I had got a dozen oranges.

One strategy some women employed to enhance their sense of food security was periodic bulk food purchasing. Immediately after receiving their monthly cheques, these women purchased large quantities of food at inexpensive, chain-run supermarkets. In addition to the savings of bulk buying, this initial outlay of money helped them to curb their spending on other important but less essential items. Freezers were considered essential to this strategy because they permitted the storage of large quantities of food. Many had purchased freezers, often with their annual child tax credits.

At times, food selection became increasingly limited and women's concerns about the quality of their families' food intakes were replaced by fears about simply not having enough to eat. "Running out of food" referred to the experience of having insufficient food to make an acceptable meal for one's family, and having no money to purchase more food. It was both frightening and humiliating and always necessitated a further decline in the perceived quality of their diets. The severity of the acute food shortages appeared to be largely influenced by four factors: the severity and duration of the financial crisis, the woman's perception of what constituted intolerable food deprivation, her resourcefulness in obtaining the needed food independently, and/or her willingness to seek outside assistance.

Shortages were initially dealt with by rationing what food remained in the house, or by lowering the quality of the meals which were served. Foods were stretched or diluted beyond their usual capacity to provide as many meals as possible. Foods such as bread or potatoes constituted a meal. In severe crises, first the women and then their children had to miss meals (most

commonly breakfast). Only one woman, however, described her children as actually having "gone hungry" for more than a few hours at a time. Meeting their children's energy needs was the top priority for all of the women.

Women sought outside assistance only when the food shortage was severe. Their first preference was to borrow money or food from a friend or relative. Strong community support networks were invaluable in permitting some women to ward off serious food shortages while retaining a measure of personal pride and dignity. Less preferred options included obtaining food on credit from a local convenience store or, as discussed earlier, selling personal possessions. A final option was to seek assistance from charitable institutions.

Discussion

The findings of this study illustrate the importance of understanding the context in which food-related decisions are made. In this group of women the need for "good" food was in competition with other factors that are frequently viewed as equal or more important to long-term survival. Nonetheless, having to eat food that is perceived as substandard is demeaning and contributes to an overall sense of impoverishment. Although these women managed to provide themselves and their children with an amount of food which they deemed sufficient for day-to-day survival, it rarely represented their preferences for variety or their individual tastes.

The periodic, acute food shortages and the chronic limited food selections described here stemmed from the economic constraints which were an integral part of the women's daily lives. The fact that food expenditures were sometimes compromised by expenditures on other goods and services, which some might regard as luxuries, could be interpreted as reflecting a distinct set of values and norms, typically labelled the "culture of poverty" (Lewis, 1968). This explanation implies that the pattern of expenditures observed in these women reflects a unique cultural pattern. Alternatively, it can be argued that the poor share the cultural values and norms of the non-poor but are prevented from displaying similar behavior patterns because of their low economic status (Djao, 1983; Schiller,

1984; Schlesinger, 1977; Valentine, 1968). The latter analysis, which acknowledges the structural context of poverty, seems more consistent with the results of this research.

Many of the women in this study had lengthy histories of poverty and expressed little hope of bettering their situations. The disparity they perceived between their lifestyles and those they envisaged higher income Canadians to be enjoying must have appeared intractable, given that the economic disparity between low and high income Canadians has widened in recent years (Battle, 1988). The women's apparent preferences for some consumer goods and services rather than "good" food perhaps reflected a desire to make their lives and the lives of their children as bearable and as close to their perception of the Canadian norm as possible. Because there are few obvious, immediate benefits from the consumption of a nutritious diet, it is little wonder that limited financial resources were diverted elsewhere. For women who regarded their economic situations as unlikely to improve, making an investment in anything that promised delayed, intangible benefits must have seemed unwise.

The poverty experienced by the women in this study is relative poverty (Rodgers, 1984); while their subsistence is not in question, their economic deprivation with respect to the general population is accompanied by a keen sense of impoverishment. The women's food problems are firmly rooted in the economic, social, and cultural realities of this impoverishment.

The food selection practices of the women interviewed, although not quantitatively assessed, appear to be consistent with the intake practices of low-income groups as reported by Myres and Koretsch (1978) and Maxwell and Simkins (1985). The women reported low intakes of fresh fruits and vegetables, except potatoes, and low intakes of dairy products. Their concerns about their limited food selections echo those raised by Karp and Green (1983). The habitual consumption of a diet lacking in variety may be predisposing these women and their children to nutritional inadequacies. As well, it must be questioned how well their food habits coincide with the dietary practices currently being recommended to the Canadian population to reduce risk of cardiovas-

cular disease and some types of cancer. The women's food habits may be increasing their vulnerability to such chronic disease. Quantitative assessments of the dietary habits of those Canadians living with severe economic constraints are needed to determine the potential nutritional and health consequences of their food consumption practices.

The context of constant financial insecurity and competing financial demands which characterized the lives of the women in this study is similar to that described by other authors who have examined the plight of low-income Canadians (Echenberg, 1987; Maxwell & Simkins, 1985). These authors, too, have reported the inextricable link between the chronic and acute food problems of the poor and the economic realities of their lives. Echenberg (1987) describes the weighing of food expenditures against other, sometimes more essential financial demands. She highlights not only the potential for hunger and malnutrition which arises from such competing demands, but also the stress of living with such severe financial insecurity. The conclusions, culled from a review of community-based literature on health inequities in Canada (Echenberg, 1987), are consistent with the study findings presented here. The high level of agreement suggests that the concepts developed in this study have broader applicability.

The study described here is limited in size and scope. Interpretations and extrapolations from these findings must be tempered by the recognition of their limitations. The sample was not selected to be representative of some larger population in any statistical sense. The fact that the study was based in a subsidized housing community may mean that the reality depicted here is that of the most privileged of Canada's poor — those who enjoy rent geared to income and relatively easy access to community support networks and social services. More studies are needed which elucidate the experiences and perceptions of the poor themselves. These studies should include samples that reflect the variations in income, housing, family size, education, duration of impoverishment, and access to social support networks which are present within the low-income population.

Notwithstanding its limitations, this study does raise questions about the nature of interventions to help low-

income single mothers with acute and chronic food problems. When the underlying causes of food problems are primarily structural, one has to question whether individualistic strategies such as food assistance and nutrition education are either efficacious or appropriate. Such interventions are incapable of promoting any significant, long-lasting improvements in the food situation of the poor, given the severe and chronic nature of the economic constraints which largely determine intake practices. Advocacy for structural changes, which will improve the economic situations of those now living in poverty, must be recognized as a primary responsibility of professional home economists, dietitians, and nutritionists. □

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If you are interested in reviewing a book, please contact the Book Review Editor, stating your area of interest. A complimentary book which may be kept will be sent to you for review.

Book Review Editor

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Research Methods in Human Ecology/ Home Economics by John Toulaitos and Norma H. Compton. (1988). Ames, IA: Iowa State University Press, 556 pages; \$39.95(US).

Limited choice of research methods texts for use in senior undergraduate and graduate level home economics/ human ecology courses has frequently resulted in the use of books specifically developed for the social sciences, education, or business. This revised and enlarged version of Compton's 1972 collaboration with Olive A. Hall, *Foundations of Home Economics Research: A Human Ecology Approach*, increases the available alternatives.

The authors provide a comprehensive overview of the research process primarily of the hypothetico-deductive approach. The introductory level treatment of research has been structured around definitions of basic concepts. To obtain greater depth of understanding of any or all of these concepts, the reader/user is referred within the text and by notes at the end of each chapter to nearly one thousand references to classic and recent literature in many disciplines including home economics/human ecology. The end-of-chapter notes replace the general practice of posing questions to stimulate thought and discussion.

One feature specifically relating this text to home economics/human ecology is the incorporation of twenty research synopses of articles published

in fourteen journals. Standardization of the content of each synopsis enables the reader to identify and contrast key components of different research strategies described in the third part of the book. All synopses pertain to studies of humans or animals to the exclusion of experimental studies involving inanimate objects such as textiles and food.

Technological advancement during the sixteen years between the publication of the two books mentioned in this review has been addressed in relation to literature searching and data recording and analysis. Use of computers to store and manipulate data entered via several options is explained, but due credit is not given to the merits of computerized literature searching. Among the listed shortcomings of computerized searching is the statement that the researcher must still locate and obtain the periodical articles and books identified before they can be used in a literature review.

In summary, the direct incorporation of some home economics/human ecology literature into this explanation of research methods, the extensive bibliography, and the research synopses make this book a valuable addition to the resources available for explaining to senior undergraduate and graduate students some of the research procedures used in our attempt to improve the quality of human life.

Reviewed by:
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Parenting for the 90s by Philip Osborne. (1989). Intercourse, PA: Good Books, 311 pages; paperback.

Parenting for the 90s is the result of Phil Osborne's teaching an undergraduate college level parent education course for many years and during that time,

never finding a book which seemed to adequately cover the subject. Osborne has put the fractured world of "how to parent" back together with a wonderful balance of common sense and clinical savvy.

Parenting for the 90s is not simply an addition to the list of books, but is better than most because the author takes a different approach. He's mapped out a way for parents to keep their balance between tough love, tender love, and love in action, to raise healthy children. Neither parents nor children lose their equilibrium and both grow in self-esteem.

Osborne attempts to describe and integrate a number of skills that parents require to effectively promote their children's development. He aptly describes the importance and role of reflective listening, discipline, communication, and problem-solving to effective family functioning.

The method by which he organizes the application of these skills to various aspects of parent-child interaction he calls *balanced parenting model*. He applies this model to issues such as television, sports, and religion. His short section on integration of religious beliefs with parenting is excellent and rationally addresses an issue that is often ignored or poorly managed in other parenting books. Osborne's book is loaded with examples and self-study questions by which readers can learn to apply the principles he suggests.

Osborne has a good section of references and a good index. The book is a solid, practical guide for parents or any one teaching parenting. It is readable, interesting, and informative rating above many parenting books on the market.

Reviewed by:
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Help for Families of the Aging by Carol Spargo Pierskalla and Jane Dewey Heald. (Revised and enlarged 1988). Swathmore, PA.: Support Source, manual 144 pages, workbook section 78 pages; \$39.95.

This is a manual designed to enable a lay leader to successfully organize and conduct a seminar for family members involved in caregiving for an elderly relative. It is written in a down-to-earth conversational style and includes humor to ease groups over subject areas which could be highly emotional.

The manual is divided into three parts. Part A helps to sensitize the leader to the areas which will be covered in the eight sessions, provides helpful advice on being the leader, and instructions for organizing a seminar. Part B leads the leader through the eight sessions, and Part C is the workbook.

One of the chapters in Part A deals with resolving distress which may be caused by the cultural and religious expectations of many caregivers. The organization procedure at the end of Part A is very complete and includes a sample newsrelease, application form, letters of acceptance and non-acceptance, and evaluation. Hints are provided to help in the selection process to ensure that participants are those who would most benefit. Part B provides detailed guidance for the seminar leader (co-leaders) for all eight sessions. Each session, is preceded by a timed agenda, and the page number in the manual which covers the information. Goals for each session are listed and all the material to be covered is provided under each agenda item. Many helpful suggestions are illustrated to help deal with negative comments or difficult situations which might arise. Throughout, leaders are reminded that they are not to provide the answers to caregiving problems or to counsel, but to enable caregivers to "become intentional about caregiving and to determine their own level of involvement". The seminar provides an awareness of the barriers preventing a change in what might be an unbearable situation, and a realization that caregivers do have a choice, even

though none of the choices may be ideal. Learning to be an active listener is, according to the authors, the most important skill the participants could learn. It is the first step in the process of problem solving in their caregiving roles.

Workbooks are available for participants (\$8.35; 1-6 copies). These provide "pencil exercises", charts, diagrams, skits, and readings which support and emphasize the information covered in the seminar. The leader's manual contains the complete workbook.

Reviewed by:

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Consumer Sourcebook: Sixth Edition. Edited by Robert Inc. Wilson. (1989). Detroit, MI: Gale Research Inc., 526 pages; \$185.00.

The purpose of the *Consumer Sourcebook* (CSB) is to provide a comprehensive digest of accessible resources and advisory information for the American consumer. CSB identifies and describes programs and services that are available to the general public at little or no cost. These services are provided by American federal, state, county, and local governments and their agencies, as well as by organizations and associations. This sixth edition of CSB contains more than 7300 individual listings and has a foreword by Ralph Nader.

Entries are arranged under 26 subject headings such as *General Consumerism, Aging, Child Services, Education, Energy/Environment, Financial Services*. A typical entry includes the name, address, and phone number of the organization and a description of services offered, membership numbers, and publications available. Some subject sections also include special topics in which information and advice are given regarding the topic. For example, the *Energy and Environment* section includes brief information on radon in the home. This is so brief, however, as to be of little use.

The sourcebook contains an excellent subject cross index, master name, and keyword index.

At first glance, the plethora of American addresses is daunting but after scanning the pages, the amazing thing was the diversity and depth of formal consumer advocacy and service in the United States. This text is an excellent library resource that should be used more than it probably is for research and consumer programs. I can only hope there is a Canadian equivalent as the particular book would have limited use in Canada.

Reviewed by:

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Personal Nutrition by Marie A. Boyle, and Eleanor Whitney. (1989). St. Paul, MN: West Publishing Co., 380 pages; \$31.50 U.S.

This textbook breaks current nutrition issues down to readily understandable concepts. A quiz at the beginning of each chapter invites the reader to delve further into the background information that supports the answers. The self-guided information search is supplemented by consumer alerts, mini-glossaries, and spotlights on current nutrition issues. Charts and tables assist in the application of the nutrition information to healthy lifestyle choices. The information is presented in a logical and motivational manner.

Although the authors claim that it is suitable for Canadian students, there is a decidedly American slant to some of the facts (ie. no mention of canola oil in the chapter on fats). Canadian Recommended Nutrient Intake Charts, Nutrition Recommendations, and Canada's Food Guide are included.

Personal Nutrition is suitable for students of introductory nutrition courses or interested laypersons. Its format makes it easy to follow and to apply to daily living.

Reviewed by:

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Abstracts of Current Literature

Family and Consumer Studies

Farm women/Farm work.

Keating, N. and Munro, B. (1988)
Sex Roles, 19 (3/4), 155-168.

Several assumptions are apparent in the literature of women's farm work. The first is that farm women do farm labor, although there are insufficient data to predict the amount of work. The second is that some of the variation in farm work hours is affected by business and family cycles. The third is that cohort also influences farm work involvement.

The purpose of this research was to discuss the family, business, and historical context of women's farm work, as well as to present some data on the nature of farm work of a group of western Canadian farm women. Data for this study were collected through a survey mailed to registered grain farm owners and their spouses. The research instrument consisted of three parts: a general questionnaire on the farm operation and identical questionnaires for husband and wife on work roles, satisfaction with work, barriers to involvement in work, stress, and satisfaction with various relationships. Responses were received from 414 farms representing 326 women and 392 men.

Results indicated that young women were significantly more likely to have a farm work role than were older women. Young women also saw more barriers to higher levels of involvement in farm work. Barriers most often cited included — skill, time, and off-farm employment. Variations in women's farm work may be a result of cohort differences in socialization for farm work, of farm cycle, or of family cycle.

Farm work is only one aspect of women's contribution to farm business. Most also have off-farm jobs and a heavy household work load at least part of which is directly supportive to the business. The examination of these other work loads in conjunction with farm work may be a more effective measure of women's total contribution to the business.

The nature and sources of information about menstruation: Implications for educators.

Cumming, E.E., Kieran, D.K. and Cumming, D.C. (1988)
Journal of Sex Education and Therapy, 14 (1), 39-45.

The manner in which a girl learns about menstruation and its associated changes may have a significant impact on her response to the event as well as her acceptance of herself as a female. The purpose of this paper was to review and critique information and educational resources about menstruation with the purpose of charting new direction for menstrual education. Information is presented on the normal

menstrual cycle and its associated bodily changes. Recent research findings on premenstrual symptomatology; more specifically dysmenorrhea and premenstrual syndrome are discussed.

Although scientific knowledge concerning menstruation has increased over the years, it is quite clear that illogical beliefs and misinterpretations relating to menstruation still exist. Unfortunately, most young people know more about these superstitions and misconceptions concerning menstruation than the actual facts. It is also evident that apart from certain select populations, young men and women view menstruation as a negative event.

Young people receive information about menarche and menstruation from a wide variety of sources: Formal sources include — teachers and medical personnel; informal sources include — parents, peers, commercial materials, television, and other media. Concerns are raised relating to the effectiveness of these sources, the affective tone in which this information is transmitted, as well as the materials available for educational use.

It is suggested by the authors that formal educators in school or in the community need to recognize the limitations of the present system and work cooperatively with informal sources of information, as well as update their knowledge as information increases. In addition, menstrual education needs to move away from the focus on hygienic management to that of healthy sexuality and acceptance of self.

Money in marriage.

Fitzsimmons, V.S. (1989)
Advancing the Consumer Interest, 1 (2), 12-15.

The purpose of this paper is to report on the results of a pilot study conducted to explore similarities and differences in money management of single-earner and dual-earner couples. Data were from the last wave of a longitudinal study, "A Panel Study on Consumer Decisions and Asset Management", conducted periodically between 1968 and 1981 in Illinois.

One hundred and sixty-one couples with spouse present and husband employed were included in the study. Forty-three percent of the couples were categorized as single-earner; 57% were categorized as dual-earner couples. Demographic characteristics (age, number of children, median income, occupation) were similar for the two groups.

Of the 16 variables tested, the two types of couples were similar for 11 of them. There were significant differences for only 4 of the variables. Both single and dual-career earner couples were more likely to handle money jointly, but dual-earner couples were slightly more likely to be egalitarian

than single-earner couples. However, in situations where couples did specialize their money management responsibilities, single-earner and dual-earner couples did not specialize in the same way. In single-earner couples, the wife was more likely to be the responsible person except when it comes to handling surplus money. In dual-earner couples the husband was more likely to be responsible for insurance and transportation and the wife responsible for the other variables.

It is suggested that the findings of the pilot study should be useful to financial counsellors and others educating families. Further study could focus on why couples manage the way they do and assign the role responsibilities as they do. Similarities and differences may also vary for single-earner and dual-earner couples in different stages of the life-cycle.

Supplementary listing of articles:

Children's inquiry strategies in referential communication and in the game of twenty questions. Courage, M.L. (1989) *Child Development*, 60(4), 877-886.

Toward a re-conceptualization of minority group status and fertility hypothesis: The case of Orientals in Canada. Halli, S.S. (1989) *Journal of Comparative Family Studies*, 20(1), 21-45.

Transferring the family farm: Process and implications. Keating, N.C. and Munro, B. (1989), *Family Relations*, 38(2), 215-219.

The family system in remarriage. An exploratory study. Hobart, C. (1988) *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 50 (Aug.) 649-661.

The effect of a support and education program in stress and burden among family caregivers to frail elderly persons. Greene, U.L. and Monahan, D.J., (1989). *The Gerontologist*, 29(3), 472-477.

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Foods and Nutrition

Changing the course: A school nutrition and cancer education curriculum developed by the American Cancer Society and the National Cancer Institute.

Light, L. and Contento, I.R. (1989)
Journal of School Health, 59, 205-209.

This paper introduces the *Changing the Course* curriculum for intermediate and secondary students and reviews the educational theory upon which it is based. *Changing the Course* places an emphasis on choosing a diet low in fat and rich in fibre. Three elements forming the base of the curriculum are nutrition and health promotion, cancer prevention, and nutrition education. Behavioral goals developed for the program were based on the dietary guidelines set forth by the American Cancer Society.

The course is organized around six learning goals which assist students in achieving the behavioral goals. Students are provided with knowledge, skills, and attitudes to enable them to adopt eating behaviors that will reduce their cancer risk. The behavioral approach used involved acquisition of necessary background information, evaluation of personal dietary habits, decision-making and goal-setting skills, and the evaluation of success in attaining goals.

Goals are addressed in five modules involving 20 classroom hours. Optional classroom activities can expand

this core program. As well, 10-15 hours of out-of-classroom activities help students make healthful choices in the context of outside influences.

The program will be pilot-tested in four states to assist in refining the program prior to widespread distribution. The course has the potential to positively influence future cancer mortality through experientially-based education.

Dieting behavior and eating attitudes in children.

Maloney, M.J., McGuire, J., Daniels, S.R., and Specker, B. (1989)
Pediatrics, 84, 482-489.

A cross-sectional survey was designed to investigate dieting preoccupation and disordered eating in a group of 318 children equally distributed between grades three through six. Data were collected using a children's version of the *Eating Attitudes Test* (ChEAT) to identify disordered eating attitudes and behaviors. As well, a demographic and dieting questionnaire was designed to solicit children's ideas about family and self-dieting patterns and peer pressure to be thin. Of the children surveyed, 53.1% were female. The mean age of the children was 9.7 years with a range of 7 to 13 years.

Scoring of the ChEAT indicated 6.9% of all children scored in the anorexia nervosa range. The second questionnaire showed that 45% of the children wanted to be thinner and 37% had already tried to lose weight. Fifty-five percent of the girls felt that they needed to be thinner compared with 35% of the boys. Results suggested that both the desire to be thinner and weight-loss attempts may increase with age. Of the surveyed children, 40% exercised to control weight, while 12% restricted energy intake, 10% binged, and 1% used vomiting. Sixty-nine percent of the children reported mothers who have dieted. Mothers and fathers were described as overweight by 13% and 18% of the sample, respectively. Of the children surveyed, 15% felt their friends would like them more if they were thinner.

This survey indicates concerns about body fat and dieting were found in a large proportion of prepubescent children, at least beginning by grade three. The authors state that it is possible that disordered eating attitudes are set early in life and not acted upon until adolescence. This suggests prevention of eating disorders might benefit from improved intervention strategies for young children.

Aspartame consumption in a representative sample of Canadians.

Heybach, J.P. and Ross, C. (1989)
Journal of the Canadian Dietetic Association, 50, 166-170.

A survey to measure aspartame (APM) consumption by Canadians was conducted in two segments. The first data collection period involved 5,544 individuals, while the second wave gathered information from 4,872 persons. Respondents completed a seven-day food diary by recording all foods and beverages consumed for several APM- containing food categories. In the first wave survey, 44% of respondents were classified as eaters of APM, while 46% were classified as such in the second wave. Therefore, about 55% of all respondents consumed no APM during the seven days surveyed.

Average APM consumption by all survey participants was 0.6 mg/kg body weight. For eaters only, average intakes

of APM were 1.3 mg/kg in wave 1 and 2.0 mg/kg in wave 2 only for those days when APM was consumed. Beverage consumption was found to be responsible for 78% of APM intake. Detailed analysis of APM intake for different age and gender groupings, as well as for individuals avoiding sugar, on weight-loss diets or with diabetes, were conducted. In all groups intake was found to be well below 40/mg/kg, the currently estimated acceptable daily intake from Health Protection Branch of the National Department of Health and Welfare.

Spontaneous meal patterns of humans: Influence of the presence of other people.

de Castro, J.M. and de Castro, E.S. (1989)
American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 50, 237-247.

The influence of the presence of other people on food intake was investigated in 14 male and 49 female adult subjects. All subjects recorded details of foods eaten, degree of hunger, and the number of people eating with them using a pocket-size diary for seven days.

Results showed a relationship between the presence of other people and the amount of food energy eaten in a meal. On average, 1.61 meals/day were eaten alone and 2.12 meals/day were eaten in the presence of an average of 2.83 other people. Meal sizes were significantly larger and included larger amounts of carbohydrate, fat, protein, and total calories, when eaten in the presence of others. Meals eaten alone had a significantly higher proportion of carbohydrate and lower proportion of fat than did meals eaten with other people. When other people are present, larger meals were consumed even though the time passed since the last meal was no greater than that for meals eaten alone. This suggests the possibility of social meals providing less satiety value than meals eaten alone and that increased size of social meals cannot be accounted for by a larger between-meal interval.

The authors state that encouraging people to eat alone might result in consumption of fewer total calories and that a smaller proportion of these calories would be derived from fat. Eating alone may also improve postprandial physiological regulation of intake. Further research is required to test these hypotheses.

Breastfeeding in the Mohawk community of Kahnawake: Revisited and redefined.

Macaulay, A.C., Hanusaik, N., and Beauvais, J.E. (1989)
Canadian Journal of Public Health, 80, 177-181.

In a study to determine the prevalence of breastfeeding in the Mohawk Nation of the Territory of Kahnawake, Quebec, 77 mothers were interviewed in their homes or by telephone. The prevalence of mothers initiating breastfeeding increased from 45% in 1978 to 64% in this 1985/86 survey. Breastfeeding rates dropped to 39% at three months and 24% at six months. Mothers aged 18 years and older and those with previous breastfeeding experience were more likely to initiate breastfeeding. As well, there was a trend towards breastfeeding with infants born weighing 2500 g or more and for mothers who were followers of Mohawk Longhouse tradition.

Choice of infant feeding method was made prior to pregnancy by 68% of all mothers surveyed. Reasons for

choosing breastfeeding dealt with ideas of improved infant health through this form of feeding. Bottlefeeding mothers cited reasons dealing mainly with convenience and ease of feeding. It was shown that advice from the baby's father concerning method of feeding significantly affected mothers' choices. Sixty-five percent of mothers felt they would breastfeed their next infant.

Reasons for discontinuing breastfeeding before three months of age included perceived lack of milk in 39% of mothers, nipple soreness in 16%, and feeling tired or depressed in 16%. At three months of age, 29% of breastfed infants and 46% of bottlefed infants were receiving solids.

This study documented an increased prevalence of breastfeeding in Kahnawake. Increased initiation and duration of breastfeeding were also evident, as was the early introduction of solid foods.

Supplementary listing of articles:

Weight gain patterns during twin gestation. Pederson, A.L. and Worthington-Roberts, B. (1989). *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 89, 642-646.

Campylobacteriosis: The complexity of control and prevention. Franco, D.A. (1989). *Journal of Environmental Health*, 52, 88-92.

Tradition and change in the Northern Alberta Woodlands Cree: Implications for infant feeding practices. Neander, W.L. and Morse, J.M. (1989). *Canadian Journal of Public Health*, 80, 190-194.

Addiction, brain chemistry, and eating disorders. Sizer, F.S. (1989). *Nutrition Clinics*, 4, 1-16.

Unproven "allergies": An epidemic of nonsense. Barrett, S. (1989). *Nutrition Today*, March/April, 6-11.

Lifeskills training for the homeless: A nutrition manual. Sweeney, C.R., Smicklas-Wright, H., and Drake, M.K. (1989). *Journal of Nutrition Education*, 21, 234A.

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Textiles and Clothing

The changing figure ideal in fashion illustration.

Danielson, D.R. (1989)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 8, (1), 35-48.

The purpose of this study was to examine the changing fashion figure ideal as represented in fashion illustration during the twentieth century. The ideal body forms and other appearance traits associated with fashionable women have varied notably during this time span. These changes have been documented and analyzed extensively in current literature. The related ideals presented for instruction in fashion illustration textbooks during the century graphically depict the evolution. Ten basic fashion figure diagrams appearing in textbooks published between 1918 and 1985 were analyzed and compared. Several line drawings derived from typical fashion editorial and advertising art supplemented these. The findings support the hypothesis that the changing fashion figure ideal in fashion illustration is influenced by and is a reflection of two major factors: a) the "spirit of the times" and b) the characteristics of each era's fashionable silhouette and apparel.

Buying for the small apparel retail store: Job content across four merchandise categories.

Fiorito, S.S. and Fairhurst, A.E. (1989)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 8(1), 10-21.

The success of a retail store is dependent upon the skills and knowledge of the buyer. The purposes of this study were to investigate the job content of buyers in small apparel stores and to compare specific job elements across four merchandise categories: a) men's apparel, b) women's apparel, c) children's apparel, and d) accessory and other apparel. MANOVA was used to compare six divisions of work-oriented job elements across the four merchandise categories and to test for differences between the variables which would indicate the most and least important/frequently used job components. There were 153 buyers who completed and returned surveys adapted from the Position Analysis Questionnaire. The results indicated that some of the aspects deemed most important/frequently used by the buyers were judging quality, decision-making, consumer behavior, and attention to detail. Some of the least important/frequently used job aspects were estimating time, keyboard devices, buying offices, public speaking, and supervisors. Eight significant differences were found among the buyers of the four merchandise categories at the .05 alpha level in relationship to color perception, estimation of size, amount of physical exertion, persuasion, semi-professional personnel, civic obligations, travel, and responsibility for waste.

Comparative performance of polyester, polypropylene and chlorofibre thermal fabrics in simulated consumer use.

Wilcock, A. and Ghosh, R. (1989)
Journal of Consumer Studies and Home Economics, 13, 263-269.

The traditional fibers used in thermal underwear are cotton and wool. Recently, however, hydrophobic fibers such as polypropylene, polyester, and polyvinyl chloride have become popular choices because of their low moisture regain and their superiority in transporting moisture away from the skin to overlying clothing. Despite their more visible presence on the consumer market, very few reports of the performance of hydrophobic-underwear fabrics have been published. The purpose of this study was to compare the water absorption/wicking, pilling, and relaxation following elongation of polyester, polypropylene, chlorofibre/acrylic, and polypropylene/acrylic/wool thermal fabrics. Results show that the polypropylene fabrics did not absorb water. Wicking was related to the mass of all but the polypropylene/acrylic/wool fabric, which had a structure unlike that of any of the other fabrics. The polypropylene/acrylic/wool blend had the optimal resistance to pilling, least dimensional change in laundering, and negligible growth after elongation.

The role of clothing in perpetuating ageism.

Workman, J.E. and Johnson, K.P. (1989)
Journal of Home Economics, 81(3), 11-15.

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of clothing in perpetuating ageism in our culture. Two aspects of clothing and ageism were examined. First, it examined college students impressions of the memory skills and personality of older persons and the relationship of the impressions to clothing cleanliness and coordination. Secondly, the study investigated whether clothing cleanliness and coordination would interact with the gender of an elderly person to affect impressions of memory skills and personality. One hundred and ninety-seven undergraduate students evaluated four photographs of an elderly male and four photographs of an elderly female in different stages of coordination and cleanliness. A questionnaire consisting of an Aging Semantic Differential Scale and a memory skill scale was used. Subjects indicated their first impression of the person shown in the photograph. Results show that both elderly persons in the unstained condition received more favorable ratings than those in the stained condition. The elderly male was rated as more instrumental, more autonomous, and more personally acceptable than the elderly female across all conditions. The elderly male received significantly more favorable ratings when wearing unstained rather than stained clothing. He also received significantly more favorable ratings than the elderly female, regardless of whether his clothing was stained or unstained. Clothing cleanliness can influence impressions formed of the memory skills and personality of elderly persons and may perpetuate stereotypes that contribute to ageism.

Supplementary listing of articles:

Fashion information seeking by younger and older consumers. Chowdhary, U. (1989). *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 8(1), 49-55.

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... In Ideas

Weight: Still a Feminist Issue

Twenty years after Susie Orbach wrote the bestselling book, *Fat Is A Feminist Issue*, weight control remains a feminist issue. Fat is still a cover-up for equality issues such as protection, sex, nurturing, strength, fear, assertion, boredom, and rage. Compulsive eating is still an attempt to cope with the world. Preoccupation with weight and chronic dieting remain largely female compulsions, and "feeling fat" remains a symptom of society's unrealistic ideal of feminine beauty and "thin" success.

Although about 85 percent of Canadian women fall within or below Health and Welfare Canada's healthy weight range, 70 percent (including many already in the underweight category) say they want to reduce their weight. A recent poll showed that most women considered losing weight more important than being successful at work — a particularly disturbing finding in light of the women's movement struggle to achieve equity in the workplace.

In 1988, Health and Welfare Canada released two landmark reports, *Promoting Healthy Weights* and *Canadian Guidelines for Healthy Weights*, which state that weight obsession, underweight, and chronic dieting may be as hazardous to health as overweight. In proposing the use of the Body Mass Index to determine a broad range of healthy weights, these reports suggest a far less stringent standard than most women apply to themselves. Most importantly, these documents support the need to promote personal and societal acceptance of variations in body size, and to create an environment that supports a positive, realistic body image.

To create healthier alternatives and counter social pressure to be thin, we must learn to celebrate our diversity and love our bodies. In doing so, we hold the power to push public consciousness.

Source: *Rapport*, National Institute of Nutrition, October 1989.

"A Recent Study Proves ..."

You pick up a newspaper or turn on the television and you are greeted by major news in the health field. A study in the latest *Extraordinarily Prestigious Journal* shows a definite link between decaffeinated coffee and heart disease. Does a study always prove something? What is a study anyway?

Almost anything can be called a study or be so designated by the press. A phenomenal amount of research is published each year: about 240,000 bio-medical articles in English alone are indexed each year by the National Library of Medicine in the United States. If every study "proved"

something, there would be no questions left unanswered. When evaluating new health-related research, keep the following in mind:

- A single study cannot prove anything. Scientific findings should be duplicated by others for validity, and even then there is an element of uncertainty.
- No matter how enthusiastically a finding is hailed in the press, see what the experts are saying next week and next month.
- Be wary of any study cited in advertising or in another context where the motive is to sell you something.

Source: University of California, *Berkeley Wellness Letter*, October 1989.

Mortgage-Backed Securities

While most people understand the concept of mortgages from the borrowing side, many have not yet discovered how mortgages, in the form of mortgage-backed securities, can be a great investment. Just what are they? Mortgage-backed securities are undivided interests in government-insured, high quality first residential mortgages.

Since their introduction in Canada in 1987, the MBS market in Canada encompasses over \$1.5 billion worth of residential mortgages. The main reasons for the growing popularity of the MBS are the high monthly income it provides, its government guarantee, its liquidity, and its high yield (it typically earns as much as, or more than a Guaranteed Investment Certificate with a comparable maturity).

Mortgage-backed securities are usually issued in 5- and 10-year terms with the minimum denomination available being \$5,000.00 with multiples of \$5,000.00 thereafter. They are also eligible for RRSP's.

Source: *Vantage Point*, Scotia McLeod Report, Summer 1989.

Soda Loading for Athletes?

Can baking soda (sodium bicarbonate) give athletes an edge in competition? Perhaps, but only very slightly and under very limited circumstances. Several studies have found that highly trained cyclists, swimmers, or runners may benefit by consuming baking soda before a short distance race (less than four minutes). Researchers believe that the sodium bicarbonate partially neutralizes the lactic acid that builds up during strenuous exertion, contributing to muscle fatigue. But there are several important facts to know:

- Baking soda won't help in races shorter than one minute and longer than four minutes. After the first few minutes, the muscles switch over to aerobic metabolism and there's little buildup of lactic acid to worry about.
- The studies were done on highly trained athletes only.

- Any improvement found was minimal — two to three seconds — insignificant for most people.
- Much remains unknown such as how much baking soda one needs to take, the type of exertion it helps, etc.
- It has potential drawbacks including diarrhea, dizziness, cramps, and nausea.

If you want to run, swim, or cycle faster, go with a solid training program and forget about gimmicks like baking soda.

Source: University of California, *Berkeley Wellness Letter*, November 1989.

... In Trends

Social Choices for the 1990s

The preamble to the legislation to implement the Canada-U.S. Free Trade Agreement states that the agreement's purpose is "to promote productivity, employment, financial stability, and the improvement of living standards."

Our existing social programs are a means of ensuring a fair share of those living standards for all Canadians. However, choices for social programs in the 1990s and beyond will be made in a very different world than the 1940s when much of our present social system was created. Programs must change because of two demographic trends — the aging of the population and the increased working population. If, for example, we were to spend less as a nation on education or child benefits, while spending more on income security or health care for the elderly, it would mean a shift of resources from one generation to another. This would clearly challenge our capacity to sustain adequate living standards for all.

Canada's overall social expenditure (including medical care, education, pensions, welfare payments, unemployment insurance, and family benefits) as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP) has changed very little since the mid-70s. And, according to a definitive study by the International Monetary Fund, Canada is a unique, industrialized country in that it does not face an increased ratio of social expenditure to GDP until after 2010. This buys us a little time in which to make choices that ensure a decent quality of life for all Canadians.

The preamble in the Free Trade Agreement is an invitation to define public minimum standards. The definitions should be as broad as possible, to encompass incomes, quality of life, health, and equity. There should be the broadest possible participation in drafting these public standards. Although reaching agreement on these standards presents a major challenge, social momentum must exist to get standards adopted within three to five years. Without such public education, the public policy stance will be badly skewed towards economic efficiency. There is a place for cost-effectiveness when it comes to social programs, but only after social goals and public standards are firmly in place.

Source: *Social Development Overview*, Canadian Council on Social Development, Spring 1989.

Canada's Immigrant Population

The share of the Canadian population made up of immigrants has remained relatively stable at about 16%

during the past several decades. Changes have occurred, however, in the numbers coming from different parts of the world. As well, because immigrants tend to settle in certain regions, their influence is felt unevenly across the country.

Some trends are as follows:

- The proportions originating in Asia and other non-European areas (eg. Caribbean, Central America, South America, Africa, Middle East) has increased to 40% (compared to 11% before 1978), while the share from Europe has declined from 70% before 1978 to fewer than 30% this past decade.
- In 1986, over nine out of ten immigrants lived in just four provinces — Ontario, British Columbia, Manitoba, and Alberta. There were particularly large concentrations of immigrants in Ontario and British Columbia where 25% of residents were immigrants. In contrast, only 7% of the population in Saskatchewan and fewer than 5% in each of the Atlantic provinces were immigrants.
- Immigrants are more likely than the overall population to live in large cities. While fewer than one-third of all Canadians lived in Toronto, Montreal, or Vancouver in 1986, more than half the immigrant population lived in one of these areas.
- The age composition of the immigrant population differs greatly from that of non-immigrants. The immigrant group has both a higher proportion of older people and a lower proportion of children than non-immigrants.
- Immigrants are more likely than non-immigrants to have a university education. At the same time, a greater proportion of immigrants had less than Grade 9 education.
- Immigrants are somewhat less likely than non-immigrants to participate in the labor force. However, labor force participation varies considerably depending on their age and length of residence in Canada.

Source: *Canadian Social Trends*, Statistics Canada, Autumn, 1989.

Part-Time Adult Education

In today's rapidly changing work environment, education is a lifelong process for many workers. However, because of work or family responsibilities, many people are enrolled in part-time courses. Statistics Canada has published the following statistics and trends:

- In 1986, 1.3 million Canadians, or more than 8% of 17- to 65-year-olds participated in part-time courses.
- People who are already relatively well-educated, who are working full-time, or who are employed in a professional or technical occupation are the most likely to continue their education through part-time training.
- Participation in part-time training ranged from a high of 11% of all 17- to 65-year-old Albertans to a low of just 3% of all 17- to 65-year-old Newfoundlanders.
- People aged 25 to 44 were the most likely to enroll in part-time training courses.
- At most ages, men were more likely than women to take a training course.
- More married men than separated/divorced men than single men took a course. The trend for women was the reverse with more single than married women taking courses.

- The largest proportion of part-time adult training courses were in business and commerce.
- For courses requiring tuition, 60% were paid for by the participants, while employers paid for 36%, and the remaining 44% were funded by other sources.

Source: *Canadian Social Trends*, Statistics Canada, Winter 1989

The Toytronic Trend

Electronics — the high-tech, high-priced stuff that fascinates their parents is the stuff kids dream about today. In the last decade, and particularly in the past five years, a hybrid category combining electronics with toys has taken off. Many playthings now talk, listen, and interact with their users. Tot-tech is an industry worth at least \$25 million annually, up four times what it was five years ago. And that's not counting the high-tech toys such as Nintendo, the computer chip-driven dolls, or motorized sports cars.

Texas Instruments may have started it all in 1978 with its Speak and Spell, a device that teaches spelling skills. Since then there have been talking alarm clocks, computer chip-driven guitars and keyboards, sing-along cassette recorders, and compact disc players that fit standard CD's coming onto the market.

Do these items stifle a child's imagination? A lot of high-tech toys are not designed to produce creative imaginary play behavior; traditional toys are looked upon to do that. But high-tech toys can help children gain information and knowledge in a highly sequential fashion, with all the principles of psychological reinforcement, and that can be considered creative.

Source: *Financial Times of Canada*, September 25, 1989.

... In Products

Insulated Siding

Unlike conventional siding, insulated siding gives an insulating factor of over R5 — equivalent to eight times the insulation value of plain aluminum siding. It has a permanently bonded foam backing which adds to the strength and rigidity. Covering this is a bonded silver colored foil which reflects heat back into the home during cold weather. The added insulation factor also helps keep a home cooler in the summer.

For more information contact: Hunter Douglas Canada Ltd., 2501 Trans-Canada Highway, Pointe-Claire, Quebec, H9R 1B3.

The Shower That Thinks It's A Bath

Deep enough for bathing, this European-style base is ideal for children's baths, relaxing foot baths, and is a unique solution for creating an extra bathing facility where only a shower will fit. It allows for a bathing depth of almost seven inches and is available in popular sizes to accommodate single and double entry door systems. Other features include: sculptured seat area, splash lip flange, and extrusion strip to ensure a total watertight seal.

For more information contact: Acriform Engineering Inc., 395 Mulock Drive, P.O. Box 327, Newmarket, Ontario, L3Y 4X7.

Fuse News

ThreadFuse is a polyester thread and fusible all rolled into one, allowing a sewer to place a thin line of fusible anywhere she/he sews. Used in a sewing machine or serger, basting takes on a new meaning — no more pins, basting tape, or hand basting. Because this product gives a strong, secure bond yet is soft and pliable, it is great for permanent fusing, too. It adheres to anything it is pressed against, leaving the polyester thread intact. It can be dry-cleaned or machine washed on a gentle cycle. A 150-yard spool costs about \$7.00 U.S.

For more information contact: The Perfect Notion, Dept. SNT, 566 Hoyt Street, Darien, CT 06820.

Planet-Friendlier Products

Final guidelines have been established for a number of product categories which will be used to determine whether or not a manufacturer can use the EcoLogo symbol (three doves intertwining and forming a maple leaf) on his product. With increasing consumer interest in the environment and efforts on creating public awareness of the EcoLogo program, there is tremendous interest amongst manufacturers and retailers in learning what it takes to get products eligible to use the EcoLogo. The first products to look for with the EcoLogo symbol are re-refined oil, insulation material made from recycled paper, and some household and office products made from recycled plastic. They should be on the market by Spring 1990.

Source: *EcoLogo* — *The Environmental Choice Newsletter*, Issue # 2, October 1989.

Labelling Changes for Produce

The federal government, as of January 1, 1990, has introduced product labelling changes to strip away the confusion over what grade of produce Canadians are buying at the supermarket. All imported fruit and vegetables must bear a "generic" grade name (eg. Grade No. 1) or a grade name of the exporting country that complies with Canadian standards (eg. U.S. No. 1). The changes apply only to the labelling of prepackaged food for retail sale and not to produce sold in bulk to consumers.

Source: *Calgary Herald*, November 9, 1989.

Tired of Telemarketers?

These days, everything from carpet cleaning to chimney sweeping is being sold over the phone. If you're tired of telemarketers calling, call the Canadian Direct Marketing Association at 1-800-668-9277 and ask to have your name removed from their calling list. It won't guarantee an end to telemarketers calling you, but it does have about 500 corporate members who you can expect not to hear from.

Source: Press Release, Canadian Direct Marketing Association, September 1989.

... In Publications

Consumer Magazines Digest

This new monthly newsletter summarizes the coverage of nutrition and food-related health topics in more than 40 popular magazines. Written for food, marketing, and health

professionals, this eight-page digest has an annual subscription rate of \$67.00 U.S. (12 issues plus an annual index).

To order or for further information, write to: *Consumer Magazines Digest*, Kristen McNutt, Editor, P.O. Box 1985, Evanston, IL 60204-1985.

National Guidelines on Preschool Nutrition

Promoting Nutritional Health During The Preschool Years: Canadian Guidelines is a document written for health and child care professionals who influence programs and policies related to the health and well-being of young children. The development of these national guidelines was a joint project of the Network of the Federal/Provincial/Territorial Group on Nutrition and the National Institute of Nutrition.

For information contact: Your local health unit.

We Are Tomorrow's Past

In celebration of fifty years of achievement and challenge, the Canadian Home Economics Association has documented the history of the home economics profession in Canada. Written by home economists, *We Are Tomorrow's Past* reviews the story of CHEA in a comprehensive, warm, and humorous way.

To obtain a copy: Send a cheque or money order (\$10.00 plus \$1.50 postage and handling) to: The Canadian Home Economics Association, 901-151 Slater Street, Ottawa, Ontario, K1P 5H3.

Fat Finders

Test your Fat I.Q. . . . learn how to make low fat food choices . . . The Fat Finder tearsheets were developed by Canadian meat industry groups as a teaching tool for health professionals and teachers. This free resource is available in single copies or in pads of 50 sheets each. Specify French or English when ordering.

To order contact: Canadian Meat Council, 5233 Dundas Street West, Islington, Ontario, M9B 1A6.

Family Violence Film and Video Collection

This catalogue lists titles and brief descriptions of current films and videos about child abuse, child sexual abuse, wife abuse, and elder abuse. Titles in the collection are distributed by the National Film Board of Canada on behalf of the Family Violence Prevention Division of Health and Welfare Canada. A related document, *Family Violence and Audiovisual Catalogue* lists the titles, descriptions, and distributors of a large number of films and videos relevant to this field. Both are available free of charge.

To order, write to: The National Clearinghouse on Family Violence, Health and Welfare Canada, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 1B5 or the nearest National Film Board of Canada office.

EcoLogo

This is the name of a free, quarterly newsletter published by Environmental Choice, an independent board appointed by the Federal Environment Minister. Anyone interested in keeping informed on this board's activities with regard to setting guidelines for what will be considered "planet-friendlier" products and thus allowed to use the EcoLogo symbol on manufacturers' packaging will be interested in this publication. As well, the board's public education efforts will be highlighted.

For more information contact: Environmental Choice, 2nd Floor, Birks Building, 107 Sparks Street, Ottawa, Ontario, K1A 0H3.

Alberta Has Healthy Outlook

The Report of the Premier's Commission on Future Health Care For Albertans makes recommendations for changes to the existing health system and to provide direction for the year 2000 A.D. and beyond. Recommendations, rationale, and supplementary material make up the contents of the three-volume report. A 30-minute video is also available.

For more information contact: Queen's Printer Bookstore, 2nd Floor, 11510 Kingsway Avenue, Edmonton, Alberta, T5G 2Y5.

Journeyworkers

Journeyworkers is a multi-media resource package for adult literacy tutor education. The package consists of five video programs (available in VHS, BETA, and 3/4 inch formats), a tutor's handbook, and a workshop leader's guide. The series can be used with a resource person, for individual or distant study, or broadcast with in-studio discussion. The cost is \$250.00.

For more information or to order a copy, contact: Program Sales, ACCESS NETWORK, 295 Midpark Way S.E., Calgary, Alberta, T2X 2A8.

Healthy Communities Newsletter

Challenge Change is a free, quarterly newsletter of The Canadian Healthy Communities Project. Those interested in making their communities healthier and happier places to live in will find this newsletter invaluable.

For more information write to: The Canadian Healthy Communities Project, 126 York Street, Ottawa, Ontario, K1N 5T5.

Nutritional Aspects of Breast Feeding

The purpose of this 15-minute video is to provide mothers with the most current information on nutrition and breast feeding. Topics covered include: changing nutritional needs during the first year, advantages of breast milk, common concerns of breast feeding mothers, proper selection of food for the mother, vitamin and mineral supplementation for the baby, avoidance of drugs and alcohol during the period of breast feeding, and storage and freezing of breast milk.

Endorsed by the Infant Nutrition Hospital Education Program Committee in Calgary, it is the first of a three-video series. It is available in three formats (1/2" VHS, BETA, and 3/4" U-MATIC) and six languages (English, French, Cantonese, Cambodian, Hindi, and Vietnamese).

For more information or to order, contact: The Department of Education Resources, Bow Valley Centre, Calgary General Hospital, 841 Centre Avenue N.E., Calgary, Alberta, T2E 0A1.

Living with Osteoporosis

This videotape was designed for health professionals to use with people with osteoporosis or those at risk. It includes: risk factors for osteoporosis, the need for and sources of calcium, the importance of exercise, how bone mass is measured, and the need for general safe-proofing of the home. This 1989 videotape was produced for the Dairy Bureau of Canada and has been approved by the Osteoporosis Society of Canada. It is 18½ minutes long and is available in ½" VHS, BETA, and 8 mm. The cost is \$24.95 and includes postage and handling (Ontario residents add 8% PST).

To order, send cheque or money order payable to: Canadian Direct Television, 135 Old Sheppard Avenue, Willowdale, Ontario, M2J 3M1.

What do you say when . . . ?

What do you say when asked about the sudden attention on heart health?

Phyllis Hodges

Heart diseases are a major cause of mortality, morbidity, and potential years of life lost in Canada. As a group, they cause almost half the deaths in Canada and are the most common cause of death in men over 40 and women over 65 (Howell, 1989). This is similar to the situation in many of the world's industrialized countries. Although, in a few countries, including Canada, the rate of heart disease is actually dropping, Canada's rate of heart disease is still much higher than in some countries such as France and Japan (Nicholls et al, 1986).

Though all the reasons for this decrease are not clear, the characteristics of average lifestyle (smoking, overweight, poor diet) contribute to the risk of heart disease. The potential for further improvement by altering these risk factors is, to some extent, under direct control. However, the traditional high-risk intervention approach, which identifies those at highest risk or already ill and imposes externally-designed and administered programs, has shown only moderate success. And it fails to target the low to moderate risk group in which the largest number of cardiovascular events occurs. A new approach is called for, targeted to the population at large.

Several international heart health programs have demonstrated a broader community-based approach (1988 *Summer School on Community Health Promotion: Effective Heart Health Programs*) to reach the population as a whole, wherein the program is integrated into existing social and health service structures of communities. A documented reduction in cardiovascular mortality and risk factors in North Karelia, Finland verifies this approach (Puska et al, 1985). Since the North Karelia Heart Health Project, the growth of several similar programs which similarly target the population at large have contributed to the Heart Health Movement.

What's Happening in Canada?

Two major documents have made important contributions to the growth of the Heart Health Movement in Canada, *Achieving Health for All: A Framework for Health*

Promotion (Epp, 1986) and *Promoting Heart Health in Canada* (O'Connor, 1987). The latter document provides the specific recommendations for heart health, while the former provides mechanisms and strategies for the process of heart health promotion.

Promoting Heart Health in Canada was prepared in response to concern for the continued high rate of death due to heart disease in Canada. It unequivocally identifies heart health as a public health issue, provides an overview of the main heart health issues in Canada, and proposes goals and approaches for program development.

The essence of the document is that the Federal and Provincial Departments of Health should address the issue of CVD prevention through an integrated multifactorial, two-pronged approach, with special emphasis on disadvantaged groups and regions with higher rates of CVD.

As a result, Health and Welfare Canada has assisted provinces in the first stage of development of comprehensive heart health interventions by co-sponsoring a series of provincial surveys through provincial public health systems. The first was completed in Nova Scotia in 1987, with several other provinces presently at various stages of planning completion.

The purpose of these surveys is to estimate the prevalence and distribution patterns of risk factors for heart disease, including high blood pressure, high serum cholesterol, and overweight. Knowledge and awareness of factors and lifestyle characteristics (smoking, physical activity) contributing to risk of heart disease are also assessed. As all the provincial surveys use a common protocol, they can be aggregated into a Canadian Heart Health Data Base (Balram et al, 1988) to make available national-level heart disease risk factor data. This information will allow interprovincial as well as international comparisons, and can serve as a resource for research and health planners.

In fact, many provinces have progressed to the second stage in the development of comprehensive heart health interventions and are using the survey data to increase public awareness of this major health problem and to plan

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heart health programs. Health and Welfare Canada is providing funding through provincial health departments for demonstration projects in heart health.

The Canadian Heart Health Network was established in 1987 to facilitate exchange of information as well as collective action to further the efforts of its members and others to promote heart health. It meets once a year and features education and information sessions, a business meeting and workshops to address special issues. For example, a recent meeting featured sessions on getting a community heart health program started and evaluation of heart health programs. The working group to address priorities for national data collection is currently focusing on recommendations for developing standard dietary methodologies and nutrient data bases for heart health programs. Other groups are considering issues of a resource clearinghouse and advocacy in heart health programs. Any interested person can participate in information exchange and workshops. For more information, contact Health and Welfare Canada.

Heart Health Inequalities

Health and Welfare's, *Achieving Health for All: A Framework for Health Promotion* (Epp, 1986), contains a challenge to reduce inequalities in health, and heart health is no exception. Heart disease mortality, disability, and risk factors do not occur equally across all socio-economic groups (Millar & Wigle, 1986; Wilkins, 1987). For example, the Canada Health Survey (1981) revealed that when stratified by income, persons in the lowest quintile are almost twice as likely to report having hypertension and/or heart diseases than those from the highest quintile.

To address the problem of heart health inequalities, a third approach is rapidly developing in addition to the traditional high risk approach and the population-targeted approach, the socio-environmental approach.

The Socio-Environmental Approach

This approach recognizes that besides the traditional risk factors for heart health, additional risk can be suffered from a host of socio-environmental conditions, such as poverty, inadequate housing, unemployment, literacy, stress, social isolation, access to food, family violence, and others. An integrated, community development process which addresses the existing socio-environmental concerns of a community and negotiates integration of more traditional lifestyle heart health risk factors is needed to effectively improve heart health (La Bonte, 1988). Three locations across Canada, Cape Breton, Toronto, and Edmonton, are developing heart health inequalities programs.

And on the Local Scene . . . What Can I Do?

The foregoing account does not reflect the breadth, multitude, and creativity of strategies that have been implemented at the municipal level, nor the clamoring for information from the general public. As you are or become involved in heart health initiatives at any or all stages, three questions are worth considering in relation to programs and projects.

- 1) Can I link and integrate with other initiatives and sectors? Heart health is a natural link with healthy communities and wellness initiatives. Consider participatory displays at winter cities celebrations, heart healthy pot-lucks at community events, participation in the Heart Smart activities (sponsored by the Heart and Stroke Foundation of Canada), grocery tours at local supermarkets, fashion shows to promote a range of healthy weights, or smoking cessation programs that offer a trip to Hawaii sponsored by local businesses.
- 2) Do some of my approaches consider the socio-environmental factors that increase risk for heart disease? Programs and projects might include participating with other people to examine access to food and policies that affect access such as food imports, exports, and packaging or the availability of healthy cheap foods that support agriculture. Community lay workers could be trained to work with their peers to improve shopping and food preparation skills. Consider developing materials and projects that are literacy and culturally sensitive, for example, use of videos, skits, story-telling, and pictures to deliver nutrition information.
- 3) Do my initiatives exemplify the challenges, mechanisms, and strategies of "Achieving Health for All"? Such projects might include examinations of policies that affect nutrient content of foods (e.g. industry or government subsidies for lower fat meat and dairy products), or heart healthy computer nutrition programs in schools or drop-in centers, or ways to make the healthy choice the easy choice, such as heart healthy restaurant projects.

Conclusion: Heart Health is here to stay. Be proactive in how you plan to become part of the Heart Health Movement. □

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Wendi Hiebert

On the Job

Profile of Wendi Hiebert A Home Economist as Liaison Officer

For the past three and a half years I have worked as a Liaison Officer for one of the largest school divisions in the world.

Manitoba's Frontier School Division sprawls over an area of one hundred and seventy-seven thousand square miles in Manitoba (or about half the area of the province.) Within this area there are thirty-seven schools in thirty-four communities, approximately 900 employees (about one half are teachers) and nearly 5,800 students. Most of the schools are in northern Manitoba and the majority of the students are Indian and Metis.

To simplify the administration of such a huge organization, the Division is divided into five geographic areas, each directed by a Superintendent who reports to the Chief Superintendent in Frontier's head office in Winnipeg. The area offices are located in Thompson, Dauphin, Norway House, and Cranberry Portage.

Wendi Hiebert (BHEc, University of Manitoba) was employed as an Extension Home Economist with Manitoba Agriculture prior to moving to northern Manitoba with her teacher husband. Her parttime job with Frontier School Division leaves her some free time to pursue freelance Home Ec work. She is presently involved in establishing a northern Branch of the Manitoba Association of Home Economics.

I work in the Area 4 office in Cranberry Portage, a small community surrounded by the picturesque lakes and forests of northern Manitoba. The administrative staff and consultants in the Area 4 office are responsible to provide support and assistance to five schools in four communities.

Frontier School Division strongly encourages the involvement of parents and community members in the school system. One opportunity for such involvement is as a member of a School Committee. Each school in Frontier is supported by a School Committee which is made up of locally elected individuals who are interested in the betterment of education in their community. Committee members assist their school administration with policy and program development and are involved in the hiring of school staff.

Representatives from the local Committees sit on an Advisory Committee in each Area. Two members from each Area Advisory Committee sit on the ten-member School Board which sets policy and provides direction for the Division as a whole.

As one of the five Liaison Officers employed by the Division, my responsibility is to act as a link between the Division staff, the committees, the Board, and the local communities and to provide support and assistance where needed.

At the start of each new school year I see to it that any vacancies on the

School Committees are filled by election or appointment. New committee members are given a copy of *Welcome Aboard*, a manual I wrote last fall. This resource is a compilation of information geared to assist "rookie" committee members in understanding the responsibilities of their new role.

Early in the year I review each Committee's Constitution and Terms of Reference with the members. These documents must be kept current so that they truly reflect the status and operation of the Committee. I also contact or meet with any members holding new positions of office (chairperson, secretary, or treasurer) to be sure they understand their roles.

During the school year I attend meetings of the five School Committees and of the Area 4 Advisory Committee. Sometimes I am there to inform the Committee of a new Division policy or Division business which will affect the members. On other occasions I am attending to determine a Committee's reaction to a new policy or program proposed by the School Board.

When I receive the minutes of each Committee meeting I review them and follow up on any requests. I am also responsible to provide my Committee members with information or training in parliamentary procedures, communication techniques, understanding the Public Schools Act, and hiring and interviewing of staff. Planning

various Area meetings and conferences also falls within my jurisdiction.

Besides working with the School Committees, I am involved in public relations for Area 4. I arrange for speakers for our weekly five-minute spot on a local radio station. I submit photographs and write or edit articles for the Frontier Northerner, the Division's newspaper. In the past, I have edited an Area 4 newsletter; however, I am now encouraging each School Committee to prepare brief but informative reports to be distributed to

each household in the local community following School Committee meetings. I also coordinate the publication of Area reports and pamphlets as requested.

A new project I am involved with this year is the development of a series of videos featuring some of the programs and opportunities available at our local residential high school.

While my present position may not be exactly what I had in mind when I decided to major in foods and nutrition years ago, my home economics back-

ground has certainly been an asset in helping me carry out my duties as Liaison Officer. The skills and abilities I need for this job (communication, organization and planning, attention to detail, understanding and working with people, work ethics, creativity) were all honed at university. I am thankful for an educational background and practical training that provided me with marketable skills that could be adapted to a job situation other than what I was specifically trained for. □

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Compilation of master's theses and doctoral dissertations in home economics and related areas completed July 1, 1988 to June 30, 1989.

Une compilation de mémoires et de thèses en économie familiale et en des domaines affiliés complétées entre le 1^{er} juillet, 1988 et le 30 juin, 1989.

Clothing/Textiles

- Black C.M. (1988). *An intergenerational investigation of women's clothing problems*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: A. Kernaleguen).
- Billich, D.J. (1998). *An evaluation of three consumer education strategies on the flammability of children's sleepwear*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser: S. Brown).
- Dahl, B.G. (1988). *Grade 3 students' cognitive and affective responses to wearing reproduction costumes in the Edmonton 1881 schoolhouse*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: A. Lambert).
- Hammick, S.J. (1989). *The effect of dichlorvos resin strips on wool fibers*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: N. Kerr).
- Kelly, B.M. (1989). *Functions of dress according to the Torah*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser: C. Gonzales).
- Marshall, S.P. (1988). *The effectiveness of Canada Standard Sizes for women aged 65-85*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser: C. Gonzales).
- McBride, S.L. (1988). *Factors influencing current fabric hood production in Eskimo Point, Northwest Territories*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser: M. Tyrchniewicz).
- Prince, H.D. (1988). *Norwegian clothing and textiles in Valhalla Centre, Alberta: A case study and inventory in an ecomuseum framework*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: A. Lambert).
- Van Schoor, H.E. (1989). *The design and evaluation of disposable protective coveralls for pesticide applicators in agriculture*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: B. Crown).

Consumer/Family Studies

- Betton, K. (1988). *An exploratory study of professionals' knowledge of current parental grief literature*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: M. Fine).
- Boyd, S. (1988). *Housing satisfaction in later life: Family dynamics and privacy issues in the accessory apartment living arrangements*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: J. Tindale).
- Bradley, Deborah (1989). *Development and evaluation of tests of marketplace knowledge*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: M. Wall).
- Buchanan, Dorothy (1989). *Factors affecting participation of C.A. departments in corporate decision making: A second look at Fornell and Westbrook*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: J. Liefeld).
- Delamere-Sanders, J. (1988). *The evaluation of a group peer helping program for seniors*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: J. Norris).
- Dick, Susan (1989). *An exploratory study on the relationship between marketing and R & D in the Canadian food industry*. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: V.J. Roth).
- Elfenbaum, M.L. (1989). *The relationship of women's physical health to multiple roles and employment*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser: N. Kingsbury).
- Fellowes, T.C. (1988). *The influence of self-efficacy on older adult's effort*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: N. Hurlbut).
- Foss, M.D.L. (1989). *Evaluation of the Fortaleza, Brazil slum redevelopment project*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: D. Badir).
- Fredlund, A.G. (1989). *Wives' reaction to disclosure of their husbands' homosexual orientation and/or activity*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: B. Munro).
- Haig, C. (1988). *Mother-blaming in major family therapy journals*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: J. Myers Avis).
- Ibrahim, E.D. (1988). *The effect of cultural congruence, parent-child care worker links and effectiveness of communication on children's levels of security as measured in a day care setting*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser: L. Brockman).
- Judge, L.C. (1989). *Identifying AIDS education needs of Metis adults*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: D. Kieren).

Sixth annual listing.

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- Little, J.K. (1988). *The acquisition of gender stereotype component links*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of British Columbia, Vancouver. (Adviser: C.L. Martin).
- Lizotte, Suzanne (1988). *Consumer search as a function of perceived protection*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: R. Vosburgh).
- MacIntosh, A. (1988). *Health and social supports for elderly persons in a rural environment*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: J. Tindale).
- Nyakabwa, K.R. (1989). *The socioeconomic adaptation of African refugees*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser: C. Harvey).
- O'Grady, Susanne (1988). *Coproduction and the private non-profit program — A case study of Hamilton East Kiwanis NonProfit Homes Inc.* Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: B. Carroll).
- Schumacher, Kristine (1989). *The role of fat in the palatability and acceptability of pork*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: E. Gullett).
- Soule, Debra (1988). *The meaning and making of a home*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: G. McCracken).
- Sweetland, L.M. (1988). *A demonstration project using volunteers in a day care setting to provide language enrichment for children*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser: N. Kingsbury).
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- van Oeveren, M.A. (1988). *Interpersonal functional flexibility: An antecedent of authoritative parenting?* Unpublished master's thesis. University of British Columbia, Vancouver. (Adviser: C.L. Martin).
- Verby, C. (1988). *Parents and AIDS education*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: E. Herold).
- Watson, D.E. (1988). *Family help to family caregivers of alzheimer patients*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: N. Keating).
- Wein, E. (1988). *Nutrient intakes and use of country foods by Native Canadians near Wood Buffalo National Park*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Adviser: J. Sabry).
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- Corner, E.J. (1989). *The effect of dietary canola oil and sunflower oil on plasma lipids in healthy young men*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser: B. McDonald and V. Bruce).
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- Elias, R. (1988). *The effect of protein or amino acid supplementation on the nutritional status of patients on continuous ambulatory peritoneal dialysis*. Unpublished master's thesis. McGill University, Montreal. (Adviser: M. Mackey).
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- Lee, L.M. (1989). *Effects of shrouding, spray chilling and vacuum-packaged aging time on the processing and eating quality attributes of beef*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: Z. Hawrysh).
- Mager, D.R. (1989). *The isolation and characterization of a prolactin binding protein in human milk*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: T. Clandinin).
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- McClure, C.L. (1989). *The effects of diet and exercise on serum lipoproteins of adult women*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser: D. Fitzpatrick).
- Mutungi, R.W. (1989). *Field test of dark adaptation response for Vitamin A status and zinc status*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser: G. Sevenhuysen).
- Pandey, A. (1989). *Properties of rat liver UDP-glucuronyl transferase enzyme activity*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser: D. Fitzpatrick).
- Poirier, D. (1988). *Nutrient absorption from liquid therapeutic diets on animal model*. Unpublished master's thesis. McGill University, Montreal. (Adviser, J. Adelson).
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- Roe, P.R. (1988). *Effect of human apolipoprotein E phenotype on endogenous cholesterol synthesis as measured by deuterium incorporation*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of British Columbia, Vancouver. (Adviser: P.J.H. Jones).
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- Bergeron, Nathalie (1988). *Effets de la protéine de poisson sur les lipides sériques et hépatiques chez le lapin*. Thèse de maîtrise

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Voisine, Richard (1988). *Impact des conditions d'irradiation gamma sur la qualité nutritionnelle d'un modèle protéique*. Thèse de maîtrise non publiée. Université Laval, Québec. (Directeur: Laurent Savoie).

Walker, D.A. (1989). *Influence of maternal weight changes during pregnancy and four months postpartum on lactation and infant*

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Zarkadas, M. (1988). *Effects of sodium chloride supplementation on urinary calcium, other urine and blood electrolytes and PTH in postmenopausal women*. Unpublished master's thesis. McGill University, Montreal. (Adviser: M. Mackey).

Home Economics Education

Campbell, F.M. (1989). *Sexuality education*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser: V. Lefebvre).

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1989-90 Undergraduate Enrolment Data

University Programs in Home Economics and Related Units

Name of University	Undergraduate Program	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	Part-Time	Total
Acadia	BSH	18	23	22	28	3	94
Alberta	BSc	62	94	110	139	20	425
British Columbia	BSc	14	37	56	66	0	173
	BA	0	0	9	13	0	22
	BHE	6	23	29	14	0	72
Guelph	BASc	399	301	243	240	68	1251
Laval	BSc	165	141	129	43	75	553
	BES	12	2	0	0	10	24
	Certificate	45	0	0	0	10	55
Manitoba	BHEcol	198	133	164	181	(151)	676
	BHEcol/BEEd	2	7	14	3	0	26
McGill	BSc(NSc)	87	84	40	43	5	259
Memorial	BSc	0	13	11	15	0	39
Moncton	BSc	16	19	19	14	68	136
Montreal	BSc	60	46	41	41	13	201
Mount St. Vincent	BSc(HE)	40	*	*	*	24	133*
	BHE	16	*	*	*	16	84*
New Brunswick	BEEd	14	13	15	15	12	69
Ottawa	BSc	**	**	43	13	0	56
PEI	BSc(HEc)	15	15	14	16	0	60
Ryerson	BAA	79	62	70	85	0	296
Saskatchewan	BSc	45	33	18	7	1	104
	BS(HEc)	0	0	0	36	(3)	36
St. Francis Xavier	BSc	20	22	27	19	2	90
Toronto ^a	BSc	n/a	91	52	38	30	211
Western	BSc	30	54	50	43	12	189

*Only the total is given

**Not declared until 3rd year

^a1988-1989 data used

()number already accounted for in the total

1989-90

Graduate Enrolment Data

University Programs in Home Economics and Related Units

Name of University	Graduate Program	Full Time	Part Time	Total
Acadia	n/a			
Alberta	MSc	9	49	58
	PhD	0	7	7
British Columbia	MA	*	*	6
	MSc	*	*	9
	PhD	*	*	3
Guelph	*			
Laval	MSc	5	7	12
	PhD	1	2	3
Manitoba	MSc	9	41	50
	PhD	*	*	4
McGill	MSc	1	17	18
	PhD	0	4	4
Memorial	MSc	0	1	1
	PhD	0	1	1
Moncton	MSc	3	0	3
Montreal	MSc	11	43	54
	PhD	0	11	11
Mount St. Vincent	MA (HE Ed)	15	13	28
New Brunswick	n/a			
Ottawa	MSc	0	1	1
	PhD	0	2	2
PEI	n/a			
Ryerson	n/a			
Saskatchewan	MSc	0	1	1
St. Francis Xavier	*			
Toronto	MSc	2	31	33
	MHSc	0	13	13
	PhD	0	15	15
Western	*			

*Data not given

Summary of a Rapid Appraisal of Trends in Home Economics Units in Canada*

	Increasing	The Same	Decreasing
Undergraduate Enrolment	41%	47%	18%
Graduate Enrolment	47%	12%	12%
Enrolment of Non-majors	41%	35%	0
Enrolment of Male Students	53%	41%	0
Enrolment of Native Students	6%	47%	6%
Enrolment of Visa Students	18%	35%	24%
Number of Faculty Members	6%	82%	12%
Number of Sessional Instructors	35%	53%	6%
Employment of Home Economists as Sessional Instructors	29%	53%	0
Employment of Non-Home Economists as Sessional Instructors	12%	59%	0
Number of Support Staff	18%	76%	6%
Operating Budget	6%	59%	35%
Capital Budget	12%	65%	29%
External Research Funds	59%	35%	0
Involvement in University Matters	47%	53%	0
Involvement in Community Activities	41%	65%	0
Involvement in Interdisciplinary Projects	53%	47%	0
Initiating International Activities	53%	35%	0
Responding to International Activities	41%	35%	6%
Faculty Morale	35%	53%	12%
Job Placement for Graduates	24%	71%	6%

*Based upon responses from seventeen institutions. Not all percentages add to 100% because of omitted responses.

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